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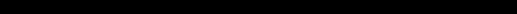
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ELEMENTS
OF
USEFUL KNOWLEDGE.

VOLUME I.
CONTAINING A
HISTORICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL
ACCOUNT OF THE
UNITED STATES :

—❖—
FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS.

—❖—
BY NOAH WEBSTER, JUN.
—❖—

" Father of light and life ! thou GOOD SUPREME !
O teach me what is good ! teach me thyself !
Save me from folly, vanity and vice ;
From every low pursuit ! and feed my soul
With knowledge, conscious peace, and virtue pure ;
Sacred, substantial, never fading bliss." THOMPSON.

—❖—
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DISTRICT of CONNECTICUT, ss.

BE it remembered that on the 21st day of July, in the twenty seventh year of the Independence of the United States of America, NOAH WEBSTER, jun. of said District, esquire, hath deposited in this office, the Title of a Book, the right whereof he claims as Author, in the words following, viz. "*Elements of Useful Knowledge, Volume 1st. containing a Historical and Geographical account of the United States, for the use of Schools, by NOAH WEBSTER, jun.*" In conformity to the Act of the Congress of the United States, entitled "An Act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of Maps, Charts and Books, to Authors and Proprietors of such copies, during the times therein mentioned."

SIMEON BALDWIN, Clerk
of the District of Connecticut.

A true copy of record, examined and sealed by

S. BALDWIN, Clerk of the Dist. Con.

July 21, 1802.

P R E F A C E.

THIS volume of "Elements of Useful Knowledge," is the beginning of a system which has been, for many years, in contemplation; but the execution of which has been heretofore delayed by other necessary employments. Notwithstanding the numerous improvements in the means of education, within the last twenty or thirty years, much remains to be done, towards facilitating the acquisition of general knowledge and useful science. The elementary works on geography, biography, natural history, and other subjects proper for the use of schools, seem to be imperfect in the want of order and method in the distribution of the several parts, and destitute of the moral, philosophical and practical remarks, which are necessary to enliven a narrative of facts, and by uniting the attractions of delight, with the labor of study, to allure the minds of youth along the difficult road to knowledge. Nature, in all her works, proceeds according to established laws, and it is by following her order, distribution and arrangement, that the human mind is led to understand her laws, with their principles and connection. It is also by carefully observing the uses of the productions of nature, and the adaption of every thing in creation to its particular purpose, that the mind is led to just views of final causes, and to such conceptions of the attributes of the divine author, as to confirm a belief in his being and perfections.

But if our elementary treatises, compiled for schools, are deficient in method, and in practical remarks, our whole system of instruction is still more defective in the number of sciences taught in ordinary schools and academies. Many of the most useful sciences and arts are not taught at all, or very imperfectly—nor have we books well calculated for the purpose.

The system here begun contemplates some improvement on the plan of general education hitherto pursued, and if public opinion should justify the attempt, it will be continued in a series of volumes, under the same title. It is the intention of the author to include in these, the *elementary principles*, by which are meant, the *known truths* and *ascertained facts*, which belong to all the more useful sciences, and all branches of practical knowledge. In pursuance of this design, it is intended, a

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far as practicable, to separate the sciences, arts, and different branches of knowledge, arranging each, under a distinct head, and in treating each, to follow as far as may be convenient, the *order of time and of nature*.

The first volume begins with what is usual in geographical treatises, a general view of the solar system, of which this globe is a constituent part. It then explains the general structure of the globe, the materials which compose it, and the distribution of those materials upon the surface. Next follow the divisions of the surface, comprehending a general view of the land, water, mountains, rivers and lakes. In the geographical descriptions, a view of the *natural structure* of a continent precedes a consideration of its *artificial state*, arising from its settlement and improvement by men. As a knowledge of our own country is most interesting to our own citizens, a description of the American continent, and especially of that part which is comprehended within the limits of the United States, tho' not falling within the rule of chronological order, takes place of all other parts of this system, and forms the substance of the two first volumes. This description comprehends a view of the position and general structure of the continent; a summary history of its aboriginal inhabitants, their settlement, character and manners. To this succeeds a brief history of the discovery of America and of the conquest and settlement of the several parts of it, by the Spaniards, French, English and Portuguese—a short account of the several grants, charters and settlement of the several English colonies, and of the most material occurrences in their political, civil, ecclesiastical and military affairs, from their first settlement to the formation of the present federal constitution. The present volume brings down this historical sketch, to the important era of the revolution.

With a view to the utmost practicable degree of correctness, in regard to American affairs, the author has consulted the most authentic histories and documents, which have hitherto been published; relying upon his own information, only in cases falling under his own observation. It has been his aim to preclude every statement or relation of facts not well authenticated, and opinions formed on slight evidence. When things are admitted as probable only, they are carefully distinguished from those which are known or understood to be facts.

In the manner of executing this work, it will be observed that great regard is had to the convenience of schools. It seems to be agreed that the catechetical is the form of writing best adapted to the understandings of children; but this is not essential, provided the passages which they are obliged to learn, are not too long and complex. The work here begun,

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is intended to be read by children in classes, or committed to memory. Those parts which are most proper to be learnt by heart, are thrown into short passages—and the whole is so divided that each pupil in reading will have a distinct portion. At the beginning of each passage, is placed the subject of it, expressed in few words, like the title to a discourse. The pupil will read this, as a title or text, to the passage; and when he commits the passage to memory, the words in Italics will furnish the teacher with the question proper to be proposed. This method will probably answer all the purposes of question and answer; at the same time, accommodate readers in classes, and save many pages in a volume, which would otherwise be occupied with questions and the repetitions that result from them.

In writing the names of American rivers, mountains, lakes and places, we are subject to some uncertainty and confusion. Some of these names have been always written according to the sounds which the English annex to the Roman letters. In these words therefore, we find some degree of regularity. But many of the names have been borrowed from the French who discovered and settled particular parts of this continent; and as the sounds which the French annex to the Roman characters, are not known to common English readers, such names are liable to be mispronounced. The facility with which the English, within the last century, have adopted French words, without accommodating them to the genius of their own language, is as disreputable to the taste of the nation, as it has been injurious to the language. When the Romans borrowed and incorporated foreign words into their language, they gave them a Roman orthography, and terminations; as in Britannia, Gallia, Hispania, Herthus. The French and Spaniards do the same; as in Martinique, Dominique, Amerique—Martinico, Dominico, Americo—each nation suiting the orthography to the genius of its own language. But the English, neglecting the beauty and regularity of their own language, adopt foreign words in their foreign spelling; thus incommoding all ordinary readers among their own citizens, and multiplying anomalies, till the orthography of their language falls little short of the confusion of tongues at Babel.

As far as regards the names of places in the United States, we have a right to control the usage, and introduce a regular orthography. It is proper that the names of rivers, &c. used by the aboriginals of this country should be preserved, and as far as possible, restored, if lost; as they are so many historical monuments of the highest authenticity; but it is proper that all those names should be written with letters adapted to express their true sound in our own language. What the true

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pronunciation of Indian names is, or ought to be, it may not be easy, in every case to decide. There is scarcely one of them which has not been spelt in many different ways, and many of them have been abridged and softened, from the hoarse guttural sounds of the savages, to a pronunciation more congenial to our language. In general, it is to be observed, that the popular pronunciation, which proceeds from a natural tendency in people to fall into an easy, analagous manner of speaking, furnishes the best rule to guide us to the true orthography of these words. The affectation of preserving, in writing, syllables which have been dropped in speaking, or which are harsh and ungrateful to the ear, is not to be vindicated; nor can any force of authority prevail against the natural tendency to ease and uniformity, which governs the mass of people in every nation, and ultimately decides almost every question in regard to language.

It is not a little to be regretted, that, in many instances, the primitive names of rivers and places have been neglected; and new names given to them, without the remotest affinity between the names and the things. What an awkward figure is made by the rivers, lakes and mountains of America, marked with the names of imaginary saints and apostles, the trumpery of monkish superstition! What a shameful proof of prejudice and absurdity, to lay aside the original names which were appropriate and descriptive, and substitute the unmeaning names of St. Lawrence, St. Pierre, and St. Croix! It is high time to correct these absurdities; and it may not be too late.

It is not necessary, nor proper to swell the preface to this work, by expatiating on its merits. It is sufficient to remark, that it is intended to carry, into schools and families, the principles and facts which compose the more interesting parts of human knowledge, and which are capable of enlarging the minds of our citizens, and directing their hands to useful employments. These principles are as necessary for the ingenious mechanic and husbandman, as they are useful and ornamental to the professional man and the scholar. Most of the books now used in schools for reading, are composed of solemn didactic discourses, general lessons of morality, or detached passages of history. These are indeed useful; but why may not children read for common lessons, the known and established principles in philosophy, natural history, botany, rhetoric, mechanics, and other sciences? Many of these principles may be made intelligible to youth; and where this cannot be done, the pupil will become accustomed to the pronunciation and use of many terms of art, which otherwise he would not learn; and the want of which is discoverable among many men even of liberal education. It is a great defect in our

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môde of education to limit the reading of youth to books on a few particular subjects ; so that when young men are ushered into the world, many and even most of them are unacquainted with even the appropriate terms used in other sciences.

But the advantages of a more diffusive system of instruction will not rest here--By reading frequently and repeatedly, passages containing just rules and principles, even above the comprehension of young minds, the pupils will learn many of them by heart, and bear the impressions into future life ; by which means, when their understandings are more matured, they will be enabled to direct, to useful purposes, the principles with which they had stored their minds in school. In this manner, useful rules and facts, acquired in youth, like seed sown in a good soil, will produce their fruit in riper years, and increase the harvest of knowledge and improvement, to enrich the community.

In the language, the author has aimed to use a style, which is plain without being vulgar ; and technical, without needless obscurity.

In every part of this work, occasions frequently occur of deducing moral and pious reflections from the subjects treated. On such occasions, special care is taken to lead the mind of the reader, from a consideration of the order, beauty and fitness of all parts of nature, to contemplate the necessity and certainty of the existence of a Creator, of infinite power, wisdom and goodness. This mode of employing natural philosophy in the service of religion and piety, has been practiced by the ablest authors and best men in all ages—it furnishes powerful aids to that firm belief in the being and providence of God, and that pious veneration for his character and attributes, which are the prime ornaments of a wise man and a good citizen.

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Elements of Useful Knowledge.

SECTION I.

Of the Solar System.

THE solar system consists of the sun, and the stars or globes which move round it, called planets.

Of the Sun. The sun is an immense body, placed near the center of the system, diffusing light and heat to all the planets. Its diameter is eight hundred and ninety thousand miles.

Planets. The primary planets, exclusive of those which have been lately discovered, are seven ; Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Herschel.* To these may be added, Ceres, Pallas and Hercules, which have been lately discovered. All the planets revolve about the sun, and receive their light and heat from that resplendent luminary.

Secondary Planets. The secondary planets are smaller orbs which revolve round the primary planets, as the moon, which moves round the earth in about twenty nine days. Jupiter has four moons, or sattellites, and Saturn, seven, which constantly move round those planets.—The planet Herschel has six sattellites.

Mercury. Mercury is three thousand two hundred and twenty miles in diameter, and revolves round the sun in about eighty eight days, at the distance of nearly thirty seven millions of miles.

* Pronounced Herschel.

Venus. Venus is about seven thousand, seven hundred miles in diameter, and revolves round the sun in about seven months and a half, at the distance of nearly sixty eight millions of miles.

The Earth. This globe which we inhabit, is a planet of nearly eight thousand miles in diameter and twenty five thousand miles in circumference. Its distance from the sun is about ninety five millions of miles, and its revolution round the sun makes our year, or three hundred and sixty five days, and nearly six hours.

Mars. Mars is in diameter four thousand two hundred miles. Its revolution about the sun is performed in one year and three hundred and twenty one days, at the distance of one hundred and forty four millions of miles.

Jupiter. Jupiter is the largest of the planets, having a diameter of ninety four thousand miles. Its distance from the sun is calculated to be nearly four hundred and ninety five millions of miles, and its revolution round the sun is performed in a little less than twelve years.

Saturn. Saturn has a diameter of seventy nine thousand miles. Its distance from the sun is calculated to be nearly nine hundred millions of miles, and its revolution round the sun is performed in twenty nine years and a hundred and sixty seven days. Saturn has two rings and a belt of spots.

Herschel. This planet, which bears the name of its discoverer, who first observed it in 1781, is nearly thirty five thousand miles in diameter; its distance from the sun, one thousand and eight hundred millions of miles, and its revolution about the sun is performed in eighty three years and a half.

Ceres and Pallas. Ceres was discovered by Mr. Piazzi, at Palermo in Sicily, in the year 1801. Its diameter is one hundred and sixty two miles. Pallas was discovered by Dr. Olbers of Bremen in 1802; its diameter is ninety five miles, and in its revolution it is not confined to the zodiac.

Hercules. In 1804, Dr. Olbers discovered another

planet, which is three times as large as Jupiter, and which, for its magnitude, he calls *Hercules*. Its distance from the sun is three thousand and forty seven millions of miles, and its revolution is calculated to be twenty four years. It has seven satellites.

Orbits of the Planets. The planets move round their centers, not in a true circle, but in a figure called an ellipsis, which somewhat resembles the form of an egg.

Perihelion and Aphelion. As the planets do not revolve round the sun in a circle, they approach nearer to the sun in one part of their orbits, than in other parts. That part of the orbit nearest the sun, is called the perihelion; and the part most distant, the aphelion.

Laws of planetary motion. The nearer a planet is to the sun, or its center, the faster it moves. Thus Mercury moves much faster than Saturn. So a planet moves more rapidly in its perihelion, than in its aphelion. The earth is nearer the sun and moves faster in winter, than in summer; hence the summer with us is eight days longer than the winter.

Of Attraction and Repulsion. That principle in bodies which disposes them to unite and cohere, is called *attraction*. That principle which disposes them to separate or recede from each other, is called *repulsion*. The tendency of a planet towards the center of the system, is called its *centripetal* force; the power that impels it to recede from the center, its *centrifugal* force; and these combined are supposed to generate the circular motion of the planets.

Of a Circle. Every circle is divided into three hundred and sixty degrees, a quarter of which or a quadrant is ninety degrees. Every degree is divided into sixty minutes, and each minute into sixty seconds.

Of the Zodiac. The Zodiac is a broad circle or belt in the heavens, containing the twelve signs, or constellations, most of which are represented by certain animals, by whose names they are called. Each sign comprehends thirty degrees.

Names of the Signs. The signs are called *Aries*,

Taurus, Gemini, Cancer, Leo, Virgo, Libra, Scorpio, Sagitarius, Capricorn, Aquarius, Pisces. The sun enters Aries about the twenty first day of March, and passes thro one sign, in each month.

Of the Ecliptic. The ecliptic is a line passing thro the center of the zodiac, and marking the path of the sun. This line crosses the equator and extends twenty three degrees and a half from it, on the north and south.

Of the Equator. The equator is a line which encompasses the globe, at an equal distance from each pole. It is called also the equinoctial line, because when the sun is on this line, which happens about the 21st of March and 23d of September, the days and nights are of equal length in all parts of the earth.

Of the Poles and the Earth's Axis. The line on which the earth turns, in its daily revolution, is called its axis—and the points directly over the ends of that line, are called the poles—one is north and the other south of the equator. The stars over the ends of the earth's axis are called polar stars.

Of the Horizon. The horizon is the line that bounds the sight. This is represented by a wooden circle, which surrounds an artificial globe.

Of the Hemispheres. A hemisphere is one half the globe or the heavens. That part which is north of the equator, is called the *northern* hemisphere—that which is south, the *southern*. So also the horizon divides the heavens and earth into the upper and lower hemispheres, and any meridian divides them into the eastern and western hemispheres.

Of a Meridian. Any line which is vertical, that is, directly over one's head, and which is supposed to pass thro the equator and poles, is the meridian of the place. The sun is on this line at twelve o'clock or noon, and this is a *north* and *south* line. On an artificial globe, this is represented by a brass ring. Circles which run parallel with this, that is, in every part at an equal distance, are called meridional lines.

Of Latitude. Latitude is the distance of a place

from the equator, either north or south. The distance from the equator to each pole, is ninety degrees or one quarter of a circle. When a place is in the fortieth degree, north or south of the equator, we say it is in the fortieth degree of north or south latitude.

Of longitude. The distance of places from each other, east and west, is called longitude. This may be reckoned from any given meridian, as from London, Ferro or Philadelphia. Thus a place 70 degrees west of London, is said to have 70 degrees of west longitude from London.

Of the Tropics. The tropics are the lines which mark the utmost limits of the sun's course, north in our summer, and south in winter. The sun is at the northern tropic about the 21st of June at the longest day, and at the southern tropic about the 21st of December, the shortest day. The first is called the summer solstice; the last, the winter solstice. These two lines are twenty three degrees and a half, one north and the other south of the equator.

Of the Zones. The zones or belts that surround the earth are five—the torrid, two temperate and two frigid. The torrid zone is comprehended between the tropics, in every part of which the sun is vertical once a year, and of course the weather is always warm. The temperate (or rather variable) zones lie between the tropics and the polar circles; that is from the twenty third to the sixty seventh degree of latitude. The frigid zones extend from the polar circles to the pole, and are cold.

Of Climates. In passing from the equator to the polar circles, that space or distance which increases the length of the longest day half an hour, is called a *climate*. But this word, in common language, signifies any region on the globe, in respect to its temperature.

Of Day and Night. The cause of day and night, is the revolving of the earth on its axis. One entire revolution takes place in twenty four hours, in which

time the earth turns every part of its surface to the sun. The light of the sun makes the day, and the shade of the earth makes the darkness of night.

Of the length of the Day. Within the tropics, where the sun is vertical or nearly so, the days are of nearly the same length at all times of the year; the variation not being more than one hour and a half. At greater distances from the equator, the difference between the longest and shortest day, is increased, until we arrive at the polar regions; where it is day for several months, and night the rest of the year.

Of the Moon. The moon is a small planet revolving round the earth. Its diameter is two thousand one hundred and eighty miles, and its mean distance from the earth about two hundred and forty four thousand miles. It passes round the earth once in twenty nine days nearly, making what is called a lunar month.

Uses and effects of the Moon's Influence. It is obvious that the moon has no small effect on the weather, as well as on the waters of the ocean. Changes of weather are most frequent and violent, within two days of the full or change. Earthquakes usually happen about the same periods, or when the moon is in her perigee or apogee, that is, nearest or farthest from the earth. The moon also is believed to affect animals and vegetables. Its light affords no perceptible heat, but fish and flesh when exposed to it, soon spoil.

Of the Tides. The tide is a rising or swell of the water in the ocean, which is caused by the moon. There are two tides in twenty four hours, one on the side of the earth next to the moon; and the other on the side opposite.

Of Eclipses. When the moon comes directly between the sun and earth, and hides the body of the sun or any part of it from us, we say the sun is *eclipsed*. When the earth passes directly between the sun and moon, and casts her shadow on the moon, we say the moon is *eclipsed*. An eclipse of the sun must happen at the change of the moon, and an eclipse of the moon must be at the full.

Of Summer and Winter. Heat is caused or excited by the rays of the sun, and when these are greatly accumulated or condensed, the heat must be great. Thus when the sun is nearly vertical, the rays fall directly on the earth, and being greatly accumulated, cause violent heat. This is the cause of the heat of summer. In winter, the rays of the sun strike the earth obliquely, and are so scattered as to make little heat.

Of the fixed Stars. Most of the stars which bespangle the heavens, are fixed, and never alter their places or relative positions. Of these about two thousand have been discovered and numbered, and as men increase the magnifying powers of their glasses, they discover new stars. The fixed stars appear to shine by their own light, and are supposed to be *suns* or centers of other systems of worlds. Their distance from us exceeds the utmost stretch of the imagination.

Of Comets. Comets, vulgarly called blazing stars, are bodies that move in very eccentric orbits. They revolve about the sun, and when they come within the solar system, become visible. They then fly off into remote regions of space, and are invisible for years. The periods of some of them are calculated to exceed three or four hundred years. How many belong to the system, is not known. They have a coma or tail, which sometimes appears like a bushy light about the body; at other times, like diverging streams of pale light, extending millions of miles into space.

Of the Milky Way. In one part of the heavens appears a broad path more luminous than the rest. The cause of this is unknown; but astronomers suppose this to be occasioned by clusters of stars so remote, as to be confounded in a mass, and not capable of being distinguished.

Of the Harmony of the System. All parts of the solar system are framed and adjusted to answer exactly the purposes intended by the Creator. The planets revolve in perfect order about their respective centers. The position and various motions of the earth are calculated to give to its inhabitants, all the varieties of

summer and winter, heat and cold, light and darkness, with the interchanges of rain and fair weather. So exact are the motions of the planets, the earth and the moon, that their positions and eclipses may be calculated to a point of space and a moment of time, for thousands of years past or to come. All is order, harmony, beauty and grandeur; manifesting the infinite wisdom, power and goodness, of the glorious Creator.

SECTION II.

GEOGRAPHY.

Definition.

THE word *geography* is used to signify a description of the terrestrial globe, comprehending its divisions, the formation of its surface, its distributions into land and water, mountains, lakes, rivers, soil and productions, and an account of its inhabitants. A description of any particular country or place is called *topography*.

Of the history of this Science. At what time the science of geography began to be studied, is uncertain. The nations which first cultivated the science of astronomy, were the Babylonians, Egyptians and Chinese; and a knowledge of astronomy is essential to a correct understanding of geography. History informs us that Thales of Miletus first ascertained the course of the sun within the tropics; he divided the year into three hundred and sixty five days, and calculated eclipses. This man lived in the sixth century before the Christian era. But there is strong evidence to induce our belief, that he and other early Greek astronomers, derived their first knowledge from the Egyptians, and these from the Chaldeans, among whom the science was studied, at a very early period. Their knowledge of astronomy, which gave their learned men the name of *Magi*, was

men, afterwards degenerated into astrology, or the art of consulting the position of the stars to foretel events—and hence sprung the silly occupation of sooth saying, for which the Chaldeans were noted to a proverb, in later ages.

Of the progress of Geography. It is recorded that Anaxamander, was the first Greek who constructed maps, globes, and invented the signs of the zodiac, six hundred years before Christ. But it is evident that the heavens were distributed into signs long before that time, and the writer of the book of Job, who lived at a much earlier period, was well acquainted with that distribution. Sesostris, king of Egypt, more than a thousand years before Christ, is recorded to have made a map of the countries he conquered; and something like this was done by the Jews, for the nine tribes, sent by Joshua to survey their portion of the holy land, “described it in seven parts in a book.” Josephus also tells us, that Joshua, when he divided the land, sent persons skilled in geometry to measure it. It is therefore probable that the Greek and Roman writers have given the name of *invention* in this as in many other cases, to what was only an *introduction* of an art or branch of science, from the east, into their respective countries.

Of the state of Geography in Rome. The Romans were led to a study of geography, by the progress of their conquests. Their armies penetrated into Persia on the east, to the Danube and Euxine, and to Germany and Britain on the north, to Spain and France on the west, and to Ethiopia, Lybia, and the Niger in Africa on the south. Of these countries and of all within these limits, the Romans, in the age of Augustus, had obtained a tolerably correct knowledge, which is preserved in the works of Pliny and Strabo. From these materials, Ptolemy, about one hundred and fifty years after Christ, composed his geography. This was the system which was generally received and followed till within a century. It is however incorrect; n

are the more modern and improved systems entirely free from the same charge.

Of the improvements in Geography. Within the last century, geography has received great improvements, from the exactness of astronomical calculations of the latitude and longitude of places. But still richer sources of improvement, have been the voyages and travels of navigators, and learned men, who have been sent by the courts of Europe to make observations. Able mathematicians were sent to measure a degree of latitude in the polar regions; and others to measure a degree under the equator, by which means the form of the earth, was proved to be not a perfect circle, but a little flattened at the poles. But no event has added more to our stock of geographical knowledge than the voyages of Capt. Cook, who, with able astronomers, sailed round the globe for the purpose of making discoveries. These and other voyages and travels have made us acquainted with many parts of the globe, before unknown; but many regions are yet wholly unknown, and others imperfectly explored.

Of the measure of the Earth. The ancients, in very remote ages, ascertained the form of the earth to be globular, or spherical; but the mode of finding the exact measure of it, has occupied the attention of the ablest men, in the most enlightened ages. The method first employed was to observe how much the distance between two places elevated or depressed the fixed stars, or the sun upon the meridian; and then measuring that distance. Eratosthenes made the circumference of the globe about thirty one thousand miles, and Posidonius, about twenty two thousand. In modern times, many able astronomers have attempted to find the exact circumference, by measuring a degree of latitude, and by this means have ascertained it with great precision, to be twenty five thousand miles.

Of the terms used in Geography. A continent is the largest or a very large division of land—an ocean is the largest or a very large portion of water, called also in

general the sea. A continent and an ocean bear some proportion to each other in extent. An island is a portion of land, surrounded by a more extensive body of water, or bearing but a small proportion of surface to that of the circumjacent water. A lake is a body of water surrounded by land, and bearing but a small proportion to the extent of the land inclosing it. A large body of water, connected by navigable water with the ocean, or bearing some proportion in extent to the surrounding land, is called a *sea*. A very small body of inland water is called a *pond*.

Of smaller divisions of Land. A long strip of land, whose breadth bears but a small proportion to its length, and which projects into the sea or is nearly inclosed by water, is called a *peninsula*. When this is united with the main land, by a still narrower neck of land, that neck is called an *istmus*. A high point of land extending to a distance from the main shore into the sea, is called a *promontory*; and the extreme end of any land thus projecting into the sea, is called, if large, a *cape*; if small, a *point*.

Of smaller divisions of Water. When the shore of the main land retires from the general line of a continent, and leaves a vast basin of water within that line, the water occupying that space is called a *gulf*. A smaller recess of the shore forms a *bay*. When also the water is nearly embosomed or inclosed within land, it is called a *bay*. A narrow channel of water between two points or other divisions of land, connecting large bodies of water, if of small extent, is called a *strait* or *narrows*; if the water is a long narrow tract or passage, it is sometimes called a *sound*. But sound is also used to denote a portion of water or narrow passage, between an island and the main land.

Of the form of the Earth. This globe which we inhabit is in the form of a ball or sphere, a little flattened at the poles, nearly resembling an orange, and called an oblate spheroid. A line passing through the earth at the equator, is longer than one passing through it from

pole to pole, by about thirty miles; in other words the equatorial diameter is about thirty miles longer than the polar diameter.

Of the materials composing the Earth. The two great divisions of the earth are land and water. But the solid part of the globe consists of a great variety of substances; such as rocks and stones, metals, minerals and fossils of various kinds, and probably no small quantity of fire. The surface of the land is generally a mold formed of decayed vegetables, as grass, plants, leaves, roots and woods. Below this mold lie strata or layers of sand, clay, gravel, marl and stone, differently arranged in different parts of the earth, in some places horizontal, in others, inclined; but the same layer is uniformly of the same thickness.

Of the surface of the Globe. The face of the globe presents to the eye of a distant spectator, two great divisions, land and water. From the north polar regions, to the thirty fifth degree of south latitude, the globe exhibits two vast continents, appearing like bands of earth. Between these are two immense oceans, which encompass both, and communicate with each other. In the midst of the southern ocean, is another tract of land which may be considered as a third continent, on the side of the globe opposite to Europe, Asia and America.

Of the first Continent. The largest portion of the earth, comprehending Asia, Africa and Europe, and most distinguished for population, arts and sciences, extends from the thirty fifth degree of south latitude, to the unexplored regions of the north, or about seven thousand five hundred miles in length. In breadth from the west coast of France to the eastern border of China, the extent is about seven thousand miles. It is estimated to contain about twenty five millions of square miles, or one eighth of the surface of the globe.

Of the second Continent. The continent, second in population, arts and improvements, as well as in extent, comprehends north and south America. This

extends from the fifty sixth degree of south latitude, to the north polar regions, and its length may be estimated at nine thousand miles. The breadth varies from fifty miles to three thousand, and its contents are estimated at fourteen millions of square miles.

Of the third Continent. The third continent extends from the eleventh to the forty fourth degree of south latitude, and from the one hundred and tenth degree of east longitude from London, to the one hundred and fifty fourth. Its length is about two thousand four hundred miles, and its breadth not much less. This land is named *New Holland*, and has been called an island; but its size entitles it to be ranked among the continents.

Of the Oceans. The largest body of water on the globe, is that which separates Asia from America; which is narrow in high northern latitudes, but under the equator, is ten thousand miles in breadth. This ocean extends and spreads over the southern portion of the globe, encompassing New Holland, and washing the southern extremities of Africa and America. From its calmness, it is called the *Pacific*, and in the southern latitudes, it is called the Great Southern Ocean.

Of the Atlantic and Indian Oceans. The expanse of water, which separates Europe and Africa, from America, is called the Atlantic, and is from fifteen hundred to five thousand miles in breadth. This ocean stretching southward to the extremities of Africa and America, unites with the Pacific on the west, and with the Indian ocean on the east. The latter is the tract of water which washes the eastern shore of Africa, and divides it from India. It is estimated at three thousand miles in breadth.

Of the uses of Oceans and Seas. The ocean, seas and lakes are vast reservoirs to receive and contain the water which falls in rain and snow; and which is constantly evaporated by the heat of the sun, or by the winds. The same water which constitutes the ocean is constant-

ly converted into invisible vapor, ascending into the air, and even forming a part of it—then being wafted by winds over the land, falls again in snow or in showers of rain, refreshing the vegetable world and replenishing the springs. Oceans and seas, lakes and rivers, serve also the purposes of commerce, by sustaining ships and bearing them, in a short time from place to place, with bulky commodities that cannot be transported by land. They are also peopled with innumerable species of fish, which furnish our tables with a vast variety of wholesome, nourishing and delicious food.

Of the face of the Globe. The external appearance of the globe is variegated with immense tracts of water, extensive plains, and elevated hills and mountains. From the structure of the surface, as well as from the necessity and utility of oceans and seas, it is evident that the vast hollows or basins containing the water, were intended, by the Great Author of Nature, to be the reservoirs of that element. Islands are the tops of mountains rising from the bottom of the deep, and serve as stations for the navigator to rest and refresh himself on long voyages, as well as to furnish a rich soil for the productions of various climates. The utmost depth of the ocean is not known—it is doubtless different in different places, and perhaps corresponds in a degree, with the elevation of the mountains on the adjacent continents, which is from one to three miles.

† *Of Mountains.* The surface of the continents is checkered with an endless variety of plains, valleys, rivers, lakes, seas and elevations. Great elevations are called *mountains*—smaller ones have the name of *bills*. Mountains are divided into two kinds; those which appear to be *primitive*, or formed with the globe itself; and *volcanic*, or such as have been formed by ebullitions of subterraneous fire.

Of Primitive Mountains. The primitive mountains are those vast chains of elevated rocks, which are composed of huge masses of the species of stone called granite, which extend thro' whole continents or large por-

tions of the earth. Such are the Allegany and Apalachian mountains in the United States, the Andes, or Cordilleras in South America, and the Alps in Europe.

MOUNTAINS IN AMERICA.

Of the Allegany. The Alleganean mountains run thro the United States, in the direction of north east and south west, at nearly an equal distance from the Atlantic ocean on one side, and the waters of the river Iroquois or St. Lawrence, the lakes and the Mississippi on the other. The great ranges, chains and peaks of these mountains are called by different names.

Of the different Ridges or Peaks. On the north east, and in the state of New Hampshire, are the White Mountains, so called from the whiteness of their tops. These are estimated to be at least eight thousand feet high, above the level of the ocean, and the base of them sixty miles in circumference. They may be seen at the distance of eighty miles. In these mountains are some of the sources of the river Connecticut, and other large rivers in New-England.

Of the Green Mountains. A chain of mountains between the Connecticut on the east and Lake Champlain and the Hudson on the west, extends thro the state of Vermont, from north to south, and is called the *Green Mountains*. Their altitude is from three to four thousand feet from the level of the ocean. This ridge is continued thro Massachusetts and Connecticut, where it is much less elevated. It terminates in steep precipices in the township of New-Haven.

Of the Catskill Mountains. On the west of the Hudson, in the state of New York, rises the Majestic Catskill, by a gradual ascent for many miles. Its highth is not known, but to the eye of a spectator, it appears of greater altitude than the Green Mountains in Vermont. Another range of mountains incloses the Hudson, about sixty miles above New York, where a deep and rocky channel seems to be formed for the river by a disrapture of the hills. These are called the *Highlands*, and constitute the seat of our

of the strongest fortresses in this country, named West-Point.

Of the Mountains in Pennsylvania. The chain of ridges is continued thro the northern and western parts of Pennsylvania, under the names of the Kittakinny or Blue Mountains, in the county of Northampton, and thence thro Dauphiny, Cumberland and Franklin. Then commences the Allegany, which is the highest and center ridge, and which extends thro Virginia and the Carolinas. Towards the southern extremity it has the name of Apalachian, and before it reaches the Gulf of Mexico it subsides into a level country.

Of the chief Ridges in the Southern States. The mountains from Pennsylvania southward, are disposed in ridges or piles, rising one above another. The first considerable elevation is the Blue Ridge—westward of this is the north mountains; then Jackson's mountain, and finally the Allegany, which being the highest above the level of the ocean, and not broken or divided by rivers, is called the spine or back bone of the country. West of this is the Laurel Ridge, extending from Pennsylvania to Kentucky. From these run many smaller ridges or spurs, and between them are fertile valleys. They all converge into a single ridge as they approach the Gulf of Mexico. The highest peaks are estimated to be four thousand feet above their bases.

Of the Mountains in South America. Thro the whole length of South America runs an immense chain of mountains, called the Andes or Cordilleras. The highest peaks of these, are found to be higher than any other mountains on the globe which are yet known, being no less than twenty thousand feet, or almost four miles above the level of the ocean. The tops of them are perpetually covered with snow and ice, altho in the torrid zone, and many of the peaks are volcanoes, at times ejecting fire.

Of Volcanic Mountains. Mountains which are thrown up by ebullitions of subterranean fire, are called volcanic. Such are Etna in Sicily, Vesuvius in Naples,

and Hecla in Iceland. These are composed of a confused mass of lava, cinders, ashes, and substances which have been vitrified, or melted into glass by the force of heat. These substances, ejected from time to time, have, in a long course of years, accumulated to high mountains.

Of the size of Mountains. It is observable, that mountains generally bear some proportion in magnitude to the extent of the land on which they stand. Continents have large mountains, and islands smaller ones. This rule however is not without exceptions in regard to the altitude of mountains; for some small islands, as Teneriff, have very high mountains, but these are volcanic. But as mountains are intended, by the wise Author of nature, to contain the sources of rivers, and give them a currency towards the ocean by a suitable declivity, it is necessary that on large continents, where the sources of rivers are at a great distance from the sea, the land should rise to an elevation proportioned to that distance; otherwise the water would stagnate and become impure. ✕

Of the utility of Mountains. If the surface of the globe was a level plain, the water falling in rain or snow, would remain stagnant until it should be all evaporated, or absorbed by the earth. In rainy seasons the face of the earth would be covered with water; in dry seasons it would be parched and destitute of moisture; for if there were no hills and mountains there could be no rivers. In this case, men would have no streams of fresh water to use for drink, for mills, for navigation, and for overflowing their fields. They would be compelled to use solely such water as they might find in wells; and as this would be nearly stagnant, it would be unwholesome.

Of the uses of Mountains. Mountains are elevated reservoirs of water, destined by infinite wisdom, to retain sufficient quantities of that element of indispensable necessity, to supply the rivers in all the vicissitudes of seasons. And these reservoirs are contrived with

wonderful skill, to retain what falls in rain or snow, and preserve it in purity. Water, upon the surface of the earth, exposed to a hot sun, would often become stagnant and impure, especially on a plain and surrounded by sand, or human dwellings. The lakes and ponds upon mountains are so placed as to be protected from artificial causes of impurity; surrounded only by the towering forest and inaccessible rocks.

Of the surface and structure of Mountains. If mountains were composed of solid unbroken rocks or hard clay, almost all the water falling on them would rush impetuously from their sides, sweeping away the fruits of human labor, and leaving the springs unsupplied. To prevent this effect, the surface of mountains is covered with trees, shrubs, leaves and rocks, which detain the falling showers, and impede the current. And the better to aid the design, the subterranean rocks are cleft and broken in every direction, to furnish inlets for the water to penetrate into the bosom of the earth. There sheltered from the causes which can render it impure, and from the solar rays, which might infuse too great a degree of heat, the water is lodged in subterraneous caverns, and preserved cool; or slowly winding in fissures, among ten thousand impediments, it gradually finds its way to the surface of the earth below, and issues in small harmless streams, to refresh the thirsty inhabitants of the vicinity, or fertilize their fields.

+ Of other uses of Mountains. Many mountains are so high that their tops are never free from ice and snow. But a part of these, dissolved by the heat of summer, furnish perennial streams of cool and fresh water for the inhabitants of the subjacent plains. Mountains also are the safe retreats and nurseries of numerous wild animals, which are very useful to man, supplying him with furs, skins and delicious food. In their bosoms are generated metals and minerals which are convertible to useful purposes without number. Their declivities are loaded with wood for fuel, timber for buildings, and herbs for medicinal uses. High lands are also the

regions of health, and freedom from the shackles of custom and vitious and corrupt society. The pale, emaciated inhabitant of the crouded city, and the sickly tenant of the marsh, grown yellow and languid, amidst the fetid vapors of autumn, visits the more temperate regions of the mountain, where breathing the pure, ethereal gale, and drinking of the crystal fountain, he soon recovers his native bloom and vigor.

Of Caverns and Clefts. In large mountains are found deep pits, clefts and caverns, formed by nature, or by streams of water, or by earthquakes. Madison's cave, on the north side of the Blue Ridge in Virginia, extends into the earth three hundred feet. Another near the North Mountain extends horizontally four hundred feet. Another called the *Blowing Cave*, emits a current of air that prostrates weeds at the distance of twenty yards. This current is stronger in dry frosty weather, than in long periods of rainy weather.— In Antiparos, an island in the Grecian sea, is a cavern, eighteen hundred feet deep; and in Derbyshire, in England, is a gulf or cavern, which has been founded to the depth of two thousand and eight hundred feet, without reaching the bottom. In 1646, a mountain in Maehian, one of the Molucca islands, was rent asunder by an earthquake, and fire issuing forth, destroyed the neighboring settlements. In the Andes are clefts of a mile in width, opening immeasurable gulfs in the bowels of the earth.

Of the origin of Rivers. Rivers, rivulets, brooks or runs, are currents of water, flowing from the interior parts of continents and islands towards the ocean or towards some sea or lake. They have their sources in mountains or high lands, and are formed by small springs issuing from the earth. Many rivers proceed from ponds or lakes, but in such cases, these basons are supplied with water from springs. When the sources of rivers are near the sea, the streams are small; but when the sources are at a great distance, the small streams find their way along in hollow places, and val-

leys, descending from high lands, till uniting, they form a large current, which discharges the water into the ocean, or other capacious reservoir.

Of the sudden increase of Rivers. Subterranean springs supply water in moderate quantities and with a degree of uniformity. But all springs are fed by rains or snow; and not by drawing water from the ocean by subterranean channels, nor by vapors condensed on the tops of mountains, unless in the form of mist or rain. When water falls in rain, part of it is absorbed by the earth, and goes to replenish the springs. The remainder, or that part which cannot penetrate the earth as fast as it falls, runsoff upon the surface, and first entering the channels of small streams, and by them conducted to larger rivers, it swells them suddenly, and often occasions floods which deluge the neighboring fields. The sudden melting of snow produces a like effect.

Of the size and current of Rivers. As rivers are the channels by which the water, falling on land, is conveyed to the ocean, they must necessarily be in proportion to the extent of the country where they flow. Thus the largest mountains and most extensive tracts of land produce the largest rivers. The Marañon in South America, the largest river on the globe, has its sources in the Andes, the largest mountains. The current of a river is spherical, rounding, or highest in the middle, which is owing to the force and pressure towards the middle, by means of the greater rapidity of the water in that part of the current. The water on the sides runs slower; being impeded by striking or rubbing against the banks; and these obstacles occasion eddies or small whirlpools, near the sides of a river.

Of the structure of the surface of North America. If we survey that part of North America which is northward of the gulf of Mexico, we observe the land rising gradually from the Atlantic on the east, for three or four hundred miles westward, till it forms an immense

chain of mountains, running parallel with the coast, from the white hills in New-Hampshire, or rather from Nova Scotia, to Georgia. Among these mountains are the sources of the rivers which run eastward and southward, and discharge their waters into the Atlantic; and of other rivers which run westward to the Mississippi, the Iroquois and the Lakes. West of the Mississippi, the land rises into a similar range of high lands, which contain the sources of the rivers, running eastward into the Mississippi, and westward into the Pacific.—North of the Iroquois and the great lakes, the land rises into a chain of mountains in which are the sources of the streams which fall into the Iroquois on the south and Hudson's Bay on the north.

Of the Mississippi. The Mississippi is a majestic river, one of the largest on the globe, and the common channel to convey to the ocean, the waters of a territory nearly a thousand miles in breadth, by more than two thousand in length. The country west of it is but little known, but probably the river is near the center of this part of America, or equidistant from the Atlantic on the east and the Pacific on the west. Its sources are certain lakes between the forty fifth and forty seventh degrees of north latitude, as the Goose Lake, Marshy Lake, but especially Turtle Lake, the most northerly source. Its course is very winding, in some places, and is supposed to be three thousand miles in length. It is from one to two miles in breadth and in some places, more than two hundred feet deep. Its current is so rapid, especially when swelled with spring floods from rain and snow, that it is difficult to ascend it, but easy to descend, in boats and small vessels. It is however navigable to the falls of St. Anthony, more than two thousand miles from its mouth. This river is the western boundary of the United States. *

* The word Mississippi, in the language of the natives, is said to signify, the fire or king of rivers.

Of the Iroquois. The Iroquois, usually called St. Lawrence, is a very large river, and the outlet or channel by which the superfluous waters of five large lakes and their numerous tributary streams, are conveyed to the ocean. Its source is Lake Superior, or rather the rivers which fall into it. From this Lake is a channel of communication with Michigan and Huron, and thence with Erie and Ontario, from which the waters issue in a large river, which running to the north east, unites with the ocean opposite to Newfoundland, where it forms a large bay. From the extreme western part of the Superior, to its junction with the ocean, is more than two thousand miles.

Of the rivers which run into the North Sea. To the northward of the sources of the Mississippi and St. Lawrence, originate several large rivers, as the Albany, the Severn and the Churchill which pour their waters into Hudson's Bay. The Makenzie, so called from the traveller, who sailed down the river to tide water, runs into the North Sea. The Unjiga, Saskatchewan and others discharge their waters into large lakes or the North Sea. The land on which these great rivers and the Mississippi and St. Lawrence have their sources, must be the highest in North America; as the waters descend to the ocean in opposite directions.

Of the Rivers on the west of the Mississippi. The country west of the Mississippi is but little known; but several large rivers from the west are found to discharge their waters into this noble stream. Among these are the St. Pierre which enters the Mississippi, just below the falls of St. Anthony and the Missouri, which is so large as to be supposed the principal branch of the Mississippi. The latter has been explored more than a thousand miles, and probably has its sources in the high lands, near the heads of the rivers which pour their waters into the Pacific. It enters the Mississippi one hundred and seventy miles above the Ohio; and its waters are said to be deep, muddy and cold.

SECTION III.

RIVERS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Rivers near the sources of the Mississippi.

THERE are several considerable streams which arise on the south west of Lake Superior, and pour their waters into the Mississippi; as the St. Francis, St. Croix, and Chippeway; but these are imperfectly known. The Wisconsin is a large river, whose sources are west of Lake Michigan. Its waters are boatable for two hundred miles or more, from its junction with the Mississippi. Between this river and Fox River is a carrying place of no great extent; and by the Fox River is a communication to Green Bay, and the Michigan.

Of the Illinois. The Illinois is a large river originating in the country south of Lake Michigan, and running south westerly, it unites with the Mississippi, one hundred and ninety miles, north of the Ohio, and eighteen miles above the confluence of the Missouri and Mississippi. The Illinois furnishes boatable water, for three or four hundred miles; and the adjacent country is among the most fertile tracts in the United States.

Of the Kaskaskia. The Kaskaskia is a considerable river between the Waubesa and Illinois, which is boatable one hundred and thirty miles, and enters the Mississippi ninety miles above the Ohio. The adjoining meadows are excellent land.

Of the Ohio. The Ohio is one of the most remarkable, as well as beautiful rivers in the world. It is formed by two main branches, the Alleghany on the north, and the Monongahela on the south, whose junction, at Pittsburg, constitutes this river. The course of the Ohio is nearly south west, but very winding, so that its length from Pittsburg to its junction with the Mississippi is almost twelve hundred miles, while a straight course is scarcely half the distance. Its breadth is from

four to six hundred yards, and near the Mississippi, one thousand yards.

Of the Banks and Navigation of the Ohio. The banks of this river are so high that, altho it is subject to great freshets in spring, the waters do not, except in a few places, swell so as to overflow the adjacent land. In dry seasons, the water, for seventy miles below Pittsburg, is so shallow; as to make navigation difficult. But in other seasons, a sloop may descend from Pittsburg; and at all times, its waters are boatable. In one place only is the navigation rendered difficult by rapids. It receives the waters of ten or twelve navigable rivers, and many more small streams.

Of the Muskingum. The Muskingum arises in the country south of Lake Erie, and after a southerly course of several hundred miles, falls into the Ohio, one hundred and seventy miles below Pittsburg. Its width at its confluence, is two hundred and fifty yards. Its current is gentle, confined by high banks which are not inundated by freshets, and boatable nearly to its source. The lands adjoining are excellent.

✕ *Of the Hockocking.* This is a considerable river from the north which unites with the Ohio two hundred miles below Pittsburg. Its banks are high, its meadows good and its waters boatable about seventy miles from its confluence with the Ohio.

Of the Great Kanbaway. This is a large river originating in the Alleganean Mountains, and after a winding course, northerly and westerly, uniting with the Ohio, two hundred and eighty three miles below Pittsburg. Its waters are deep enough to be navigable, but its navigation is much impeded by falls and rapids.

Of the Siota. The Siota is a considerable river, originating in the country south of Lake Erie, running southerly and falling into the Ohio, three hundred and ninety miles below Pittsburg. It has a gentle current, and its banks furnish excellent meadow, which is overflowed by freshets in the spring. It is boatable for two hundred miles from its mouth.

Of the Great Miami. This is a river of the North Western Territory, and like the Siota, has its sources in the country southward of the great Lakes, and falls into the Ohio, five hundred and fifty miles below Pittsburg. Its channel is stony, and its current rapid, but not obstructed by falls. Its waters are boatable, and by means of its head streams, it offers an easy communication with the Waubosh and Lake Erie.

✦ *Of the Licking.* The river Licking has its sources in the mountains, near the heads of the Cumberland, and running north westerly, about one hundred miles, it unites with the Ohio. In its course, it interlocks with the Red River, the north and main branch of the Kentucky.

Of the Kentucky. The Kentucky is a considerable river, which arises in the Laurel Ridge, and watering the state of the same name, unites with the Ohio, six hundred and twenty eight miles below Pittsburg. Its waters are boatable one hundred and eighty miles from its mouth.

Of the Buffalo. The Buffalo River is a considerable stream falling into the Ohio on the south side, about nine hundred and twenty five miles below Pittsburg. It is about two hundred yards wide, and boatable to the distance of one hundred and fifty miles. Its banks furnish a luxuriant soil.

Of the Waubosh, [or Wabash.] The Waubosh is a noble river, of the North Western Territory, arising in the country west of Lake Erie, and after winding thro a fertile in country, a south westerly direction, mingling its waters with the Ohio, one thousand and twenty miles below Pittsburg, and within one hundred and sixty five of the Mississippi. It is two hundred and seventy yards wide and boatable four hundred miles from its mouth, and when swelled with rains, two hundred miles further.

Of Cumberland, or Shawny River. The Cumberland is a considerable stream, arising in the Alleghanean ridge.

es, and after a circuitous course thro the states of Kentucky and Tennessee, uniting with the Ohio, about seventy miles from the Mississippi. It is boatable one hundred and eighty miles from its mouth.

✦ *Of the Tennessee, or Cherokee River.* This is a large river, which has its sources between the ridges, called Bald and Cumberland Mountains. After a very winding course, in which it waters the state of Tennessee, it unites with the Ohio, thirteen miles below Cumberland river. It is the largest of the tributary streams of the Ohio, being in general four hundred yards wide, and is boatable nine hundred miles from its mouth.

Of the Yazoo. The Yazoo river arises in the Chickasaw territory, runs south westerly and falls into the Mississippi. It is boatable about one hundred miles, and its adjacent lands are very fertile. The last fifteen rivers here described, all navigable, and some of them for several hundred miles, are the tributary streams of the Mississippi on the east, which descend from the mountains and water an immense tract of valuable land. To these we may add a multitude of inferior streams.

Rivers which discharge their waters into the Gulf of Mexico.

Of Pearl River. On the east of the Mississippi, several large rivers flow southward into the gulf of Mexico. One hundred and five miles from the Mississippi, is Pearl River which has its sources in the country of the Choctaws. It is very crooked, with low banks which are annually overflowed; but is boatable one hundred and fifty miles from the sea.

Of the Pascagola. Sixty miles east of the Pearl, is the Pascagola, nearly of the same magnitude. It rises in the Mississippi territory and affords boatable water about one hundred and fifty miles from its mouth, at the gulf of Mexico.

Of Mobill Bay and River. The Mobill is a bay of about thirty miles in length, and ten or twelve in

breth, extending from the gulf of Mexico northward, and affording water for small vessels. Further northward the bay or river becomes narrower, and forks into two principal branches, one of which is called the Tanfaw or Spanish branch. These branches inclose the island of Mobill, eight leagues in length. A few miles above, the Mobill takes the name of Tombigby, and is joined by the Alabama, a large river formed by the confluence of the Coosaw and Tallapose.

Of the branches of the Mobill. The Tombigby is a considerable river originating in the country of the Chickesaws, and augmented by many smaller streams, especially Sipsey's river on the east. It is navigable for small vessels one hundred miles. The Coosaw arises in the hilly country of the Cherokees, and running two or three hundred miles, joins the Tallapose, a considerable river from the east, and these form the Alabama. These rivers furnish boatable water into the interior country and penetrate a rich and luxuriant soil.

Of the Apalachicola. The Apalachicola or Cowetas river rises in the mountains, which are a continuation of the Alleganean ridges, in the country of the Cherokees, near the confines of South Carolina. The principal streams which form this river are the Chatahochy, Euchy, Chatahospa and Flint river. The Flint is one hundred miles in length; arising on the high lands east, and uniting with the principal stream, one hundred and twenty miles from the sea. Twenty miles from the sea, this river forks and enters the gulf of Mexico by two large channels; the western one is called the river Calistobile. This river and its branches furnish extensive inland navigation; the main river being four hundred miles in length.

Of the Apalachy. The Apalachy has its sources in the state of Georgia, and running south westerly about one hundred and thirty miles, enters the bay of the same name in the Mexican Gulf. This is a fine river, and from the mouth of it runs the old Spanish road to

St. Augustine. The distance from St. Marks on the Apalachy to St. Augustine is one hundred and eighty eight miles. There are six or eight other considerable rivers which fall into the Gulf of Mexico from the north, but the country and the rivers are little known.

Rivers which discharge into the Atlantic on the eastern shore of America.

RIVERS IN GEORGIA.

Of the St. Mary. The St. Mary proceeds from the Wakafanogee, a morass or swamp of three hundred miles in breadth, and running easterly falls into the Atlantic. It is about one hundred and fifty miles in length, and navigable for small craft about ninety. This river is a part of the southern boundary of the United States, separating them from Florida.

Of the Satilla. The Great Satilla is a secondary, but large river of Georgia, originating in the high grounds, and running a south easterly course about two hundred miles, till it enters the Atlantic, in the county of Camden. This furnishes an inland navigation to a considerable distance; the little Satilla is of less consideration.

Of the Altamahaw. The Altamahaw is a river of nearly five hundred miles in length. Besides many other considerable streams the Ocony and the Oakmulgy unite to form this noble river. The Ocony arises in the mountains near the sources of the Apalachicola, and runs a south easterly course till it meets the Oakmulgy from the west. The breadth of the Altamahaw is from four to five hundred yards. It enters the Atlantic by two channels, and furnishes an inland navigation of great extent.

Of the Ogeechee. The Ogeechee is a secondary river in Georgia, but of considerable magnitude. Like all the rivers on the Atlantic coast, it has its sources in the high lands westward, and running a south easterly course of nearly two hundred miles, discharges its

waters into the Atlantic, about eighteen miles southward of the Savanna.

Of the Savanna. The Savanna is formed by two main streams, whose sources are in the Alleganean mountains—the Tugelo on the south, and the Keowee on the north. It receives a great number of tributary streams, and pursuing a south easterly direction, for a distance of near four hundred miles, enters the Atlantic. It bears large vessels to the city of Savanna, seventeen miles, and boats of a large size to Augusta, one hundred miles further. This river is the boundary between Georgia and South Carolina.

RIVERS IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

Of the rivers of secondary size. Between the Savanna and the Santee are the Coosaw, Combahee, Edisto, Cooper and Ashley, which are considerable streams, arising in the country westward, and seeking the Atlantic, in a south easterly direction. The Coosaw enters the sea at Beaufort; the Combahee enters Helena Sound; the Edisto is discharged by different channels which encompass the island of that name. The Cooper and Ashley approach each other and join below Charleston, forming the bay or harbor before that city. These all furnish navigable water, and especially the Edisto. North of the Santee is the Wenee, which unites with the Pedee, just above its entrance into Winyaw Bay. Besides these, the shore of South Carolina is indented with many smaller streams, creeks or inlets which are navigable.

Of the Santee. In addition to the Savanna, which washes the state of South Carolina on the south, this state boasts of the Santee and the Pedee, which are large and navigable rivers. The Santee is formed by three great streams, the Catawba, the Broad and the Saluda; besides a multitude of smaller tributary streams. From the junction of the Broad and the Saluda, the stream which they form is called the Congaree, to its confluence with the Santee. The Catawba

has its sources in North Carolina. The Santee is now connected with the Cooper, by a canal by which boats pass from the interior country to Charleston. The Santee enters the ocean by two channels, about forty miles northward of Charleston.

Of the Great Pedee. The Pedee has its main sources in North Carolina, upon the Alleganean mountains, where it is called Yadkin. After it enters South Carolina, it receives the waters of the Lynch, Black River and the Little Pedee, besides many smaller streams. It passes Georgetown and enters Winyaw Bay, which communicates with the ocean, a few miles north of the Santee.

RIVERS IN NORTH CAROLINA.

Of the Clarendon, or Cape Fear River. The Clarendon descends from the mountains, in two main branches, the Haw and Deep Rivers, which unite and form a large navigable stream, called the North West Branch. This is enlarged by Black River and the North East Branch, and near the ocean is three miles wide. The North East Branch bears large vessels twenty miles from its entrance into the ocean; and the North West Branch, about thirty miles, and is boatable about ninety miles, to Fayettevill. It is two hundred miles in length. Near the union of the two branches stands Wilmington, a chief commercial town of the state. This river enters the Atlantic by two channels, of which the southern affords the best water for ships.

Of the Nuse. The Nuse is a considerable river, arising in the mountains, and receiving in its course, besides smaller streams, Little River, Cotecheny and Trent, enters Pamlico Sound. At the confluence of the Nuse and the Trent stands Newbern, the most considerable town in the state. The river bears sea vessels twelve miles above Newbern, about fifty miles from the sound, and boats ascend nearly two hundred miles.

Of Tar River. The Tar has its origin in the high lands, and running south easterly is augmented by the

waters of Sandy Creek, Fishing Creek and Beech Swamp Creek, which enter it from the north west. The Tar falls into Pamlico Sound ; is navigable about forty miles to Washington, and boatable to Tarborough, about fifty miles further.

Of the Roanoke. The Roanoke is a large river formed by the junction of two main branches, the Dan, which has its sources along the north border of North Carolina ; and the Staunton, which arises between the Blue Ridge and the North Mountain, in Virginia. After a south easterly course of three hundred miles, it enters Albermarle Sound. Its current is rapid and much obstructed by falls, so that small vessels only ascend about sixty or seventy miles.

Of the Chowan. The Chowan is formed by three main streams, the Meherrin, Nottaway and Black Water, all of which have their sources in Virginia. Their general course is south easterly, and uniting their waters within North Carolina, they are called Chowan, which is discharged into Albermarle Sound, a little north of the Roanoke.

RIVERS IN VIRGINIA.

Of the navigable waters of Virginia. All the large streams in Virginia pour their waters into the Chesapeake, a navigable bay of two hundred and sixty miles in length and from five to eighteen in breadth. This bay opens into the Atlantic in latitude thirty seven degrees north, between the Capes, Charles and Henry. It penetrates Virginia on the North and a great part of Maryland, affording water for the largest ships, and safe navigation. It is never froze, except in winters of unusual severity.

Of the James, or Powhatan. The Powhatan, or James River, is formed by many head streams, but chiefly by the Fluvanna, and Rivanna. The Fluvanna, or principal stream, has its sources in the Allegany, where it bears the name of Jackson's River ; and penetrating the three ridges of mountains, called Jackson's, the North and the Blue Ridge, it receives many

small streams, and especially the Rivanna and Chickahominy from the north, and the Appomattox from the south, and enters the Chesopeek at the south end of the Bay, west of Norfolk. It bears small vessels nearly to Richmond, more than one hundred miles, and boats nearly to the Blue Ridge.

Of York River. York River is a broad stream or bay, formed by two considerable rivers, the Pamunky and Mattaponi, which have their sources on the West Mountain, east of the Blue Ridge. This river is navigable for large ships, to the confluence of its two chief branches. The Pamunky is boatable more than one hundred miles above the confluence and the Mattaponi, about seventy. On the south side of this river is Yorktown, distinguished, in the annals of the United States, for the capture of Lord Cornwallis and his army in 1781—the great event which decided the revolutionary war.

Of the Rappahannoc. The Rappahannoc is a considerable river arising on the Blue Ridge, from several streams, the principal of which is called the Rapid Ann. It enters the Chesopeek at nearly an equal distance from York River and the Patomac. It bears small vessels about one hundred miles, and nearly to Fredericksburg.

Of the Patomac. The Patomac, a large navigable river, proceeds from a number of considerable streams, which arise between the different ridges of mountains, east of the Allegany, and which run a north easterly course, till they unite with the main branch. The largest tributary stream is the Shenandoah, which, after traversing a hundred miles along the western base of the Blue Ridge, as if to find a vent, unites with the Patomac, which rushes through the mountain, in a passage evidently formed by the violence of the stream, and exhibiting a magnificent spectacle. It then pursues a south easterly course to the Chesopeek.

Of the advantages of the Patomac. The Patomac, which is seven miles wide at its entrance into the Ches-

opeck, bears large ships to Alexandria ; smaller vessels to the falls above Georgetown ; where by means of locks, boats are conveyed to the river above, and borne to Fort Cumberland, offering an extensive inland transportation by water. The river is more than a mile wide at Alexandria. At the junction of a considerable creek, called the eastern branch, stands Washington, the seat of the national government, on the north or Maryland side. Nearly opposite is Alexandria, a commercial town ; and nine miles below, on a high bank, at a bend in the River, is Mount Vernon, the seat of the illustrious Washington. This river separates Virginia from Maryland.

RIVERS IN MARYLAND.

Of several small rivers. On the west side of the Chesapeake are the Patuxent, the Severn, and Patapsco ; all from the north west and the latter of which enters the bay, just below Baltimore. On the east side are the Elk, Chester, Choptank, Nanticoke, Wicomico, and Pocomoke ; all of which run a south westerly course, to the bay. These and many smaller streams and creeks offer navigable water to some distance into the interior country. The Susquehanna, a large river, forms a part of the waters of Maryland, but its stream is principally within the limits of Pennsylvania.

RIVERS IN PENNSYLVANIA.

Of the Susquehanna. The Susquehanna is a large river, formed by two main branches—the eastern branch which has its sources in the state of New-York, and receives the Tioga soon after it enters Pennsylvania, —and the western branch whose sources are northward and westward of the Bald Eagle Mountain. The river runs a southerly course and enters the head of the Chesapeake, in Maryland. In its course it is augmented by many small rivers, among which are the Juniata and Conestoga. The navigation is rendered difficult by the falls or rapids, about twenty miles above its mouth, but the river above is boatable almost to its sources.

Of the Schuylkill, and Lehi. The Schuylkill is a secondary river, proceeding from two branches, whose sources are westward of the Blue Ridge, or the Kittatinny Mountains. It runs south easterly and enters the Delaware about six miles below Philadelphia. Its waters are boatable. The Lehi has its sources west of the Blue Ridge, runs easterly about seventy five miles, and enters the Delaware at Easton. It is boatable about thirty miles.

Of the Delaware. The Delaware is a large navigable river, whose sources are in the state of New York. Its principal head branches are the Mohackis and the Popachton; the latter of which rises in the Katskill Mountains on the east. This river runs southerly, and passing Trenton, Philadelphia, and Wilmington, opens into a spacious bay of sixty miles in length, which communicates with the ocean by a passage of six or seven leagues in breadth, between the Capes, Henlopen on the south and May on the north. It bears a ship of the line to Philadelphia, about one hundred and twenty miles; and small craft to Trenton falls, and boats of burthen one hundred miles further. This river divides New Jersey from Pennsylvania.

RIVERS IN NEW JERSEY.

Of the Rariton. The Rariton proceeds from two branches, the north which rises in Morris County and the south in Hunterdon County. Running easterly, it passes New Brunswic, and enters a spacious bay, at Amboy, opposite to Staten Island, where it forms an excellent harbor. It is navigable for small vessels to Brunswic, at which place is an elegant bridge over the river, supported by stone piers.

Of the Passaic and Hackensac. The Passaic rises in Morris county, and winds its way, in a very irregular course, to the waters of the Atlantic. It unites with the Hackensac, and forms Newark Bay, opposit to the north end of Staten Island. The falls in this river at Patterson are highly romantic.—The Hackensac has its sources in the Highlands, in the state of New York,

and running south, unites with the Passaic in Newark Bay. These rivers bear sloops a few miles and over them are handsome bridges, on the public road between New York and Philadelphia.

RIVERS IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

Of the Hudson. The Hudson has two great head streams; one which arises in the high lands west of Lake Champlain; the other, called the Mohawk, which arises in Steuben county, near the waters which run westward. This branch is about one hundred and thirty miles in length—is boatable and opens an easy communication with the western lakes. It enters the Hudson by two streams nearly opposit to Lansingburg about eight miles above Albany. Just above its confluence, is the fall or Cohoze. The Hudson runs south and enters the Atlantic below Staten Island. Between Staten Island and New York, it forms a spacious bay, and is joined by an arm of the sea called East River. It bears ships of a large size to the city of Hudson, one hundred and thirty miles, and small craft forty miles further to Lansingburg, near the rapids.

Of the secondary rivers. In the western part of this state is the Genesee, a considerable river, which rises in the mountains of Pennsylvania, and running a northerly course, about a hundred miles, it enters the Ontario.—Seneca river has its sources in the Canandarqua, Seneca and Cayuga Lakes. In its course, it receives the waters of the Oneida Lake, and enters the Ontario. The Oswegatchie enters the Iroquois, near the northern boundary of the States. The Wallkill rises west of the Highlands and running a north easterly course, enters the Hudson, below Kingston. The Croton, which has its sources in New Fairfield in Connecticut, and the eastern part of New York state, runs south westerly, and enters the Hudson, in Tappan Bay.

RIVERS IN CONNECTICUT.

Of the Housatonic. This river is formed by two streams, one from Lanesborough, the other from Windfor, in the county of Berkshire in Massachusetts, and

running southerly, penetrates Connecticut, and after a course of one hundred miles, discharges its waters into the Sound, between Milford and Stratford. It is navigated by small vessels to Derby, about ten miles from its mouth, above which its channel is stony and the stream generally rapid.

Of the Connecticut. The Connecticut is a river of considerable magnitude, being generally four hundred yards in breadth, and for the plenty and goodness of its fish, and the quantity of rich meadow fertilized by its waters, is equal to any river in the United States. Its sources are among the White Hills, and other high lands on the borders of Canada—its course is southerly and its length about three hundred miles, to its discharge into the Sound, between Saybrook and Lyme. It divides New Hampshire from Vermont, penetrates the state of Massachusetts in Hampshire county, and separates Connecticut into almost equal parts.

Of the navigation of the Connecticut and its tributary streams. This river admits small vessels to Hartford, forty five miles from its mouth, and excepting the falls, is boatable almost to its sources. The falls at Walpole, Greenfield and Springfield are made passable in boats by locks. This river receives the Tunxis or Farmington river in Windsor—the Agawaum in West Springfield—the Chickopy in Springfield—the Deerfield in the town of the same name—Miller's River—White River—West River—Amanoosuc—Pafumfic, and many smaller ones.

Of the Mohogan River or Thames. The Mohogan is formed by the confluence of three main branches, the Shetucket, Quinebaug and Norwich rivers. It forms the excellent harbor of New London and is navigable to Norwich fourteen miles from the sound. The streams above Norwich are not navigable.

RIVERS IN RHODE ISLAND.

Of Providence River. This is a small river which falls into Narraganset Bay, at the town of Providence. This bay is navigable for large ships to Providence, thirty miles from the sea; it contains several large and

fertile islands, and forms, opposit to Newport, one of the most spacious and safe harbors in the world. This bay receives the two largest rivers in the state of Rhode Island, the Patucket on the east and the Pawtuxet on the west.

RIVERS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

Of the Merrimac. This is a considerable river of Massachusetts and New Hampshire, which proceeds from three or four streams; one called Pemigewasset—another, Winepiseogee, from the lake of that name—a third from the White hills, and a fourth called Bakers river.—After the junction of these it proceeds southerly and easterly about ninety miles, and unites with the Atlantic below Newbury Port. It is navigable about twenty miles to Haverhill, and furnishes above that town boatable waters. In this state also are Charles, Mystic and Taunton Rivers; and the Connecticut flows through the county of Hampshire.

RIVERS IN NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Of the Piscataqua, or Piscataway. This river springs in the town of Wakefield, in New Hampshire, and running south easterly, about forty miles, and dividing New Hampshire from Maine, unites with the Atlantic, below Portsmouth. About seven miles above Portsmouth, it receives the western branch, which is formed by several streams, and here becomes a deep, rapid river, never freezing and navigable for large ships. It forms an excellent harbor at Portsmouth. The Merrimac also has its sources, and the principal part of its course in New Hampshire.

RIVERS IN MAINE.

Of the Sauc. This is a considerable river in the District of Maine, originating among the White Hills, and winding, in an easterly course, to the Atlantic. It is navigable to the fall, about six miles, and above that, boatable.

Of the Androscoggin. This river, called also Amareiscoggin, has its sources north of the White Mount-

tains, and in lake Umbagog; it runs in New Hampshire for some distance near the border of the state; then crossing into Maine, winds its course towards the ocean, and unites with the Kennebec, about twenty miles from the sea. The stream formed by this confluence was formerly called Sagadahoe.

Of the Kennebec. This is a large river, arising in the High Ridges of land that form the boundary of the United States. In its course, it receives the Sebasticook on the north, and Sandy river on the south, and falls into the Atlantic, east of Casco bay. It is navigable forty six miles, and boatable above the falls. The main branch passes thro a large lake called Moosehead or Moose Lake.

Of the Penobscot. The Penobscot is the largest river in the District of Maine. It has its sources in the high lands that divide Canada from the United States, and running south easterly falls into the Atlantic. It is navigable forty miles, and boatable above the first fall for seventy miles without interruption. By this river, the Indians formerly made their inroads from Canada upon the early settlements.

Of the Saco. This is a considerable river in Maine, which, rising in the hills and passing a lake of the same name, falls into the bay of Passamaquoddy. The north eastern branch of this river, has been determined to be the northern limits of the United States, and the boundary between them and the British Province of New Brunswick.

RIVERS IN VERMONT.

Of the Missisquoi. The Missisquoi is the most northerly river in Vermont. It has its source in Belvidere, and running north east, enters Canada; then bending westerly and southerly, crosses the line into Vermont, and enters a bay of the same name, in Champlain, in the township of Highgate. It is about seventy miles in length.

Of the Lamoil. The Lamoil is a river of the size of Missisquoi. It proceeds from a pond in Glover, and runs

ning westerly unites its waters with lake Champlain in Colchester, five miles north of Onion River.

Of Onion River. This river has its source fourteen miles west of Connecticut river in the town of Cabot, and running a north westerly course, discharges its waters into Lake Champlain, between Burlington and Colchester. Its waters are navigable five miles from its mouth, and boatable much farther between its falls. By this river the Indians formerly travelled, when they invaded the settlements on the Connecticut.

Of Otter Creek. This is a boatable stream in Vermont, arising in Bromley, running northerly about ninety miles, and falling into lake Champlain, at Ferrisburg.

RIVERS IN THE BRITISH PROVINCES.

Of the St. John's. This is a large river in the Province of New Brunswick; three hundred and fifty miles in length, navigable for coasters sixty miles, and for boats two hundred. It has its sources in the ridges of high land which divide the waters of the St. Lawrence from those which fall into the Atlantic, and running a south easterly course, falls into the bay of Fundy. In Canada is the Iroquois which has been described.

General remarks on the Rivers of North America. Of the eighty three rivers here described, seventy four are streams that water the territories of the United States, and nearly forty of them are rivers of primary magnitude and importance to navigation. Most of them have their sources in that immense chain of Mountains, which, under various names, extend from north east to south west thro the whole territory—a distance of at least fifteen hundred miles. Those mountains, receiving the rain and the snow, embosom vast reservoirs of water, from which issue innumerable streams to refresh and fertilize this vast extent of country.

Of the freezing of Rivers. All the Rivers in North America, which are northward and eastward of the Hudson, are covered with a bridge of ice almost

every winter, nearly to their mouths. The Hudson, the Delaware and Susquehanna in ordinary winters, are *always* frozen above their rapids and near their sources—*usually* so, for a few weeks, below navigable water—and are always closed to their mouths, in winters of uncommon severity. In such winters also the rivers and bays are covered with ice as far south as Virginia and sometimes, tho rarely, in the Carolinas. In the winter of 1779–80, loaded carriages passed Chesapeake bay on the ice at Annapolis, where it is five miles wide.

Of Freshets, Freshes or Inundations in Rivers. By reason of great rains or the sudden melting of snow, rivers are often swelled, so as to quit their banks and overflow the adjacent low lands. In the mild climates of the southern states, these freshets usually proceed from rains, and may happen at any season of the year. But from the Susquehanna northward and eastward, altho excessive rains *may* cause inundations, yet the dissolving of the snow in the spring, is the principal cause. When these freshets are great, sudden and before the rivers are clear of ice, they sometimes occasion great destruction, sweeping away trees, fences, bridges, mills, houses and every thing on their banks. An instance happened in March 1784, in the Susquehanna, Patomac and James Rivers.

Of the annual Floods in the Connecticut. The inundations of the Connecticut are annual, and the most remarkable of any in the eastern states. The first swelling of the water is when the snow is dissolved on the Atlantic shore and on the low land adjoining the river, which usually happens about the last of February or beginning of March; and, at this time, the river is cleared of ice usually for one hundred miles or more from its mouth. About a month later, a second and a more considerable flood is caused by the melting of the snow, on the interior mountains, and about the head of the river. This flood, rising from twelve to twenty feet, spreads the waters over the flats or med-

dows to a great extent—surrounding trees and buildings—and exhibiting a sea of water, among villages and cultivated fields.

Of the utility of Rivers. The uses of rivers are innumerable—They supply fresh water for the neighboring inhabitants—they may be spread over fields to nourish grass, rice, indigo, or other valuable plants—they feed numberless fishes which furnish man with food or an article of commerce—they supply water for mills and forges, and thus save an incredible quantity of labor—they constitute the boundaries of kingdoms, states, towns and possessions—they bring down from the hills a fat, slimy substance or particles of rich mold, the remains of trees and plants, which are lodged on mountains beyond the reach of man, and deposit them on the verdant plains below; and so wonderful is the economy of nature, that this process by which the lands of the husbandman are fertilized, without his own labor, is performed annually in spring, just before the farmer *wants* the manure on his land, and when no crops can be injured by the inundation.

Of the means by which rivers are supplied. As water, next to air, is the most necessary article for man and beast, so the beneficent Author of nature has furnished it in the utmost abundance. That element, in the form of water, fills the earth near its surface, where, if it does not issue in springs, it may be found by digging wells. In the form of water, it serves innumerable essential uses; but as the laws of gravitation, which occasion it to fall and run to the ocean, prevent its return, the Author of nature has endowed that element with a capacity of being rarefied and by the action of heat, raised in the form of vapor; which is seen in clouds or it incorporates with the air, and becomes invisible. In this manner, water is buoyed up in the atmosphere, wafted over the land, and being disengaged from its heat, and condensed into clouds, it is again precipitated upon the earth. By this action

ishing mechanism, air is converted into water to refresh the earth, and water is converted into air by evaporation, to be wafted over the earth. Wonderful is the process, and glorious the Author.

CATARACTS.

Of Rapids, and Falls or Cataracts. When rivers flow along a plain and nearly on a level, they move with a gentle and silent current. When the bed of a river descends considerably, its waters flow rapidly, and such places are called *rapids*. If the water falls over a precipice in the channel, the place is called a fall or cataract; and the waters of a large river, falling in a sheet over a precipice, or tumbling and dashing and foaming among broken rocks, exhibit one of the most grand and entertaining spectacles in nature.

Of the principal Cataracts in America. The most distinguished Cataract in the United States, and perhaps in the world, is, the fall of Niagara, between the lakes Ontario and Erie. The perpendicular descent of the water is nearly one hundred and fifty feet, and the breadth of the river more than seven hundred yards. The roaring of the water is heard from 20 to 40 miles, according to the weather—the earth near the fall seems to tremble; and a mist constantly arises from the spray of the dashing waters, which forms a cloud over the place.

Of other Falls. At the fall of St. Anthony's the waters of the Mississippi are precipitated at once about thirty feet. The fall of the Mohawk, called Cohoes, about two miles from its junction with the Hudson, is a charming spectacle; the water rolling over a rock, extended from side to side, in a single sheet, and falling about 60 feet. The Passaic falls in New Jersey form an interesting spectacle; the water falling in a sheet into a chasm of the rock, about seventy feet, finds a passage below on one side of the opening. At the Cataract in the Housatonic, between Salisbury and Canaan in Connecticut, the river tumbles down a

steep rock about sixty feet, exhibiting a grand and picturesque scene.

The Fall at Walpole. At Walpole, in New Hampshire, is a remarkable fall in the Connecticut. The river is there narrowed to the breadth of 22 rods, and the stream divided by a rock into two channels, one of which, when the river is low, is dry. The whole river is then thrown into the other channel, and descends in a passage of sixteen feet wide, with amazing force and velocity, forming a most romantic and interesting spectacle.

Of other falls and rapids. All large rivers have falls or rapids, and these in the United States, are too numerous to be severally described. Most rivers have rapids just above the head of tide water. The rapids of the Hudson are just above Lansingburg and the confluence of the Mohawk—in the Delaware, they are at Trenton—in the Schuylkill, a few miles above Philadelphia—in the Susquehanna, about twenty miles from its mouth—in the Patomac, just above Georgetown—in the Rappahannoc, near Fredericksburg, and in the James, at Richmond. As the head branches of all large rivers are in mountainous tracts of country, there are usually rapids or falls, where the rivers leave the hilly country, and descend into plains.

LAKES.

Of Lakes and Ponds. Lakes and ponds are collections of water in valleys or hollow places; some of them are fed mostly by springs which do not appear; others are fed by rivulets from hills and mountains. Some of them have no outlet; others are the sources of rivers and brooks.

Of the Lakes in the United States. The greatest collections of inland water in the United States, are on the northern boundary, separating them from the British possessions in Canada. The most remote of these is the Lake of the Woods, on the north west frontier of the United States. Its length is said to be one

hundred miles and its breadth thirty or forty ; but it has not been fully explored.

Of Lake Superior. Superior is one of the largest inland bodies of water on the globe, being fifteen hundred miles in circumference, with a rocky and mountainous shore. It contains many islands, one of which is said to be a hundred miles in length. It is supplied with water by many streams and some large rivers ; and it communicates with Huron by the strait of St. Mary. Its water is clear, deep and cold ; abounding with fish, especially sturgeon and trout of a large size.

Of the Huron. Lake Huron is supposed to be one thousand miles in circumference, but is of a triangular form. As it receives a current of water from Superior, so it discharges its waters into Erie on the south ; it also communicates with Lake Michigan on the west, by the straits of Mishillimakinac.

Of the Michigan. This lake is about two hundred and eighty miles in length, about sixty in breadth and six hundred in circumference. It receives a number of rivers, from some of which a communication may be easily made to the rivers which fall into Erie, the Waubesa and Illinois.

Of Erie. Erie is upwards of two hundred miles in length, and about forty in width. It communicates with Huron by a river, called *Detroit*, which signifies a *strait* ; and by Lake St. Clair. On this river stands a fortress, called by the same name, Detroit. By the streams that fall into this Lake, a communication is very easy with those which fall into the Ohio and Michigan.

Of Ontario. Ontario is the last of the great chain of inland waters which border the United States and Canada. It is about six hundred miles in circumference, and communicates on the west with Erie by Niagara, and on the east, with the Iroquois or St. Lawrence. All these lakes are navigable for large ships and abound with a variety of excellent fish, among which are trout weighing from sixty to ninety pounds.

Of Champlain. Champlain is a large lake, being two hundred miles in length and generally five in breadth. It lies in the northern part of the state of New York, dividing it from Vermont, and extending into Canada. On the south, it receives the waters of lake George at Ticonderoga and communicates with South Bay, which receives the waters of Wood Creek. It contains several islands, some of which, as the north and south Hero, are inhabited. Its waters are discharged into the St. Lawrence by the river Sorell.

Of Lake George. To the south west of Champlain lies lake George, about thirty five miles long and from one to seven wide. The waters of this lake are one hundred feet higher than the surface of Champlain, into which they fall. The south end of the George extends within fourteen miles of the Hudson; and here formerly stood Fort George on the lake, and Fort Edward on the Hudson, at the point of communication.

Of South Bay. This is a continuation of Lake Champlain, about thirty miles in length and in some places, one in breadth; at the head it receives Wood Creek in Skeensborough. It communicates with Champlain by a strait of half a mile wide, on the west of which, in the state of New York, stands old Fort Ticonderoga, and on the east in Vermont, Mount Independence, which was fortified by the Americans in 1776.

Of Moosehead, or Moose Lake. This is a considerable lake in the District of Maine and county of Lincoln, from which issues the east branch of Kennebec River. Its shores are irregular, and it has not been fully explored.

Of the Winipisegee Lake. This is the largest lake in New Hampshire, being twenty two miles long and in some places, eight miles wide. It lies in the western part of the state and gives rise to a river of the same name, which is one of the principal sources of the Merrimac.

Of the Umbagog. This is a considerable body of water lying partly in New Hampshire and partly in Maine. It is very irregular in its form, but its dimensions are not known.

Of Memfremagog. This lake lies on the borders of Vermont and Canada, chiefly in Canada. It is about forty miles in length and two or three in breadth. Its waters communicate with the St. Lawrence by the river St. Francis.

Of New Streams. In the year 1775, the river Sauco was suddenly swelled, without great rain, in a manner to surprize the inhabitants. It was afterwards discovered that a body of water had burst out of the side of the White Mountain, and poured itself into that river. The stream still continues to flow from the same source, and has considerably augmented the river Sauco.

Of new Channels in Rivers. In many places, there is sufficient evidence that large rivers have changed their channels—the old channels exhibiting all the marks of the flowing of waters in some former period—as stones and rocks worn smooth. The Connecticut winds thro a meddow or flat, which has all been formed by the current, and it still changes its channel, gradually wearing off the land on one side and depositing it on the other. In March 1784, a sudden thaw broke up the ice when thick and strong, and an immense body lodging on the flats above Hartford, dammed up the channel—immediately the water rose, rushed over its eastern bank, and began to wear a new channel near a mile from the present. But the ice suddenly gave way, and the river resumed its old channel.

ISLANDS.

Of Islands. Those portions of the earth which are comparatively small, and surrounded by water, are called *islands*. Some of these are probably the summits of hills or mountains, whose bases are on the bottom of the ocean. Some of them appear to be as

old as the earth—others have been formed by the force of currents of water in the sea or at the mouths of rivers, or in their channels—and some have been thrown up by the action of subterranean fire.

Islands on the American Coast.

Of Long Island. Long Island is situated near the shore of the main land, beginning near New York, and ending nearly opposit to the line between Connecticut and Rhode Island. Its length from east to west is about 130 miles, and its general breadth about ten. It is separated from the main land by a strait called the Sound, which is from eighteen miles to half a mile wide; and on the west, is separated from Staten Island, by the main channel of the Hudson, with the waters of the east River. It contains three counties and is a part of the State of New York.

Of Staten Island. This lies west of Long Island, embosomed in a bay, nine miles south west of New York. It is about eighteen miles in length by six in breadth, and forms the county of Richmond. Its inhabitants are nearly four thousand, and it belongs to the state of New York.

Of Fisher's and Plumb Islands. Fisher's island lies in the sound, opposit to Groton and Stonington, in Connecticut. It is eight miles in length, and two in breadth, and contains a few good farms. It belongs to the State of New York, and is annexed to the county of Suffolk on Long Island. Between this island and a small uninhabited island called Gull island, is a very rapid tide, and a surprising rippling of the water called the Race. Off the mouth of the Connecticut, is Plumb island, inhabited by five or six families.

Of Block and Gardiner's Islands. Block island lies southward of the harbor of Newport, about twenty miles. It is about twelve miles in length, four in breadth, belongs to the state of Rhode island, and constitutes a township by the name of New Shoreham. It is fertile, abounding with cattle, and remarkable for its excellent cheese. Its inhabitants are nearly seven

hundred. Gardiner's Island lies near Montauk point on Long Island—it contains about three thousand acres of land, affording good pasturage.

Of Rhode Island. This island lies in Narraganset bay; is about fourteen miles in length and two in breadth. Its soil is very luxuriant, and well cultivated; but it was robbed of its wood by the British troops in the revolution war. On the south west end stands Newport, one of the largest towns in the state, opposite to which is Goat Island, about a mile from the town; on which is a fort.

Of Conanicut. This is an island in the Narraganset Bay, west of Newport, six or seven miles in length from north to south, but narrow. Its soil is luxuriant and well cultivated. On the south point of this island stands the Light House, and the channel on each side of the island is navigable for large ships. To the northward, in the same bay, lies Prudence and a few smaller islands.

Of the Elizabeth Islands. These islands form a chain extending from north east to south west, along the southern shore of Massachusetts, from Buzzard's Bay, opposite to New Bedford. They are numerous, but the chief are Nashawn, Pasqui, Nashawenna, Pinnequese and Cuttahunk. They have mostly a rich soil and are cultivated. On Cuttahunk, the south western island of this chain, Capt. Gosnold landed and fixed a habitation with a view to make a settlement in the year 1602, but his people grew uneasy, and all returned.

Of Martha's Vineyard. This is an island belonging to Massachusetts, of about twenty miles in length by six in width, situated about eight or nine miles, southerly of the Elizabeth Islands, and westward of Nantucket. The soil is good and the inhabitants nearly four thousand. Here is a safe harbor, and very useful in winter, when ships bound to Boston cannot venture round the shoals of Nantucket and Cape Cod. The western end of this island is a precipice called Gay

Head, [Gosnold called it Dover cliff,] very high and steep, and of a reddish color.

Of Nantucket. This island lies eastward of Martha's Vinyard, and southward of Cape Cod, at the distance of twenty five miles. It is about fifteen miles long and from three to ten wide, and contains good land; but a principal occupation of the people is the whale fishery. Its inhabitants are nearly five thousand; mostly quakers. It is a county and belongs to Massachusetts.

Of other Islands. There are many islands belonging to the United States which are too small to require a particular description. Boston Bay is crowded with small islands, some of them inhabited, and many of them cultivated. On one of them stands Fort Independence, a strong fortress, commanding the entrance into the harbor. The coast of Maine is lined with small islands; and so is the shore of the Carolinas and Georgia. Some of the islands on the southern coast have an excellent soil, and furnish the best crops of cotton. They were covered with live oak, the best of ship timber, but this is rapidly disappearing before the hand of the cultivator.

Of the uses of Islands. In addition to the value of islands, as land for cultivation, they have an important use in regard to navigation. Islands form a bulwark against the violence of the billows which are incessantly rolling from the ocean; protecting the mouths of rivers and the entrance of harbors. Were it not for Islands, the shores of bays and rivers at their entrance, would be almost incessantly beat with the swelling surges, which would prevent or render dangerous, the entrance of ships. This is one of ten thousand evidences of the wisdom and kindness of a beneficent Creator, in the structure of the earth.

Of New or Volcanic Islands. The ancients had a tradition that the two celebrated islands of Greece, Delos and Rhodes, emerged from the sea, and several

smaller islands. But it is well authenticated that the islands Thera, and Therasia arose from the sea, by means of subterranean fire, about two hundred and thirty seven years before Christ. One of these islands, now called Santorin, is thirty five miles in circumference and inhabited. About one hundred and thirty years after, arose Hieræ; and about the twenty first year of the Christian Era, arose another island called Thia. In the year after Christ 725, arose another island near Thera, attended with smoke, and a dense substance that hardened into a kind of pumice stone.

Of Islands thrown up in modern times. In May 1707, happened an earthquake at Santorin, and two days after, appeared a new island not far distant, attended with a noxious vapor, and a dismal noise that lasted for two months. In October 1720 a fire arose out of the sea near Tercera, one of the Azores, and with it an island which was covered with fire and smoke; cinders were thrown to a distance, and a noise resembling thunder accompanied this event.

Of new Islands near Iceland. In 1784, after the greatest volcanic discharges in Iceland, that are recorded, two islands appeared, one of them a hundred miles south west of Iceland, in a place where the sea was six hundred feet deep. This threw out fire, sand, pumice stones and other volcanic matter, for some time; but this and the other afterwards sunk and disappeared.

Of Lands made by Rivers and Currents. A strong current in the ocean will sometimes throw up the sand on its sides, or by means of eddies, form shoals and points of land. In this manner Cape Hatteras, Cape Fear and Cape Cod seem to have been produced by the force of the Gulf stream, which creates powerful eddies and counter currents. Rivers also form bars, shoals and islands by sand and other substances thrown into the sea by their currents. Thus the Nile in Egypt is supposed to have formed the lands called the Delta; and the Mississippi has by the force of its current, actu-

ally made two hundred miles of flat land in the gulf of Mexico.

Of additions to Valleys and Plains. The currents of rivers, small streams and torrents caused by rain, are constantly wearing upon the hills and driving the earth and sand into the valleys below. Thus the flat lands in the Carolinas appear to be formed or enlarged by matter brought down from the hills, or thrown up by the resisting waters of the ocean. Thus, in the Meddows adjoining our rivers and lakes, logs, leaves and other vegetables, and sometimes frogs are dug up, from a depth of ten, or twenty feet. At Burlington, in Vermont, in 1788, many frogs in a torpid state were dug from the earth, twenty five feet below the surface. There they must have been covered by the earth deposited by Onion river, and there they must have lain for ages, perhaps centuries. Being exposed to the air, they soon recovered life and motion; but not being able to endure the heat of the sun, they perished.

GULFS, BAYS, &c.

Of the chief Gulfs and Bays in North America. Two vast bays or inland seas terminate, on the north, the known territory of North America. The first takes the name of Hudson's Bay, from the discoverer. This lies on the north of Canada and Labrador, and communicates with the Atlantic by Hudson's Strait. It is from two to three hundred leagues in length, and is occupied by the British nation, to whom it is valuable only by means of the fur trade and fishery which are enjoyed exclusively by a company. This bay was discovered in 1610.

Of Baffin's Bay. North of Hudson's Bay is another called Baffin's Bay, from the navigator who discovered it in 1662. This is an immense body of water, communicating with the Atlantic by Baffin's and Davis's Straits. It extends from the 70th degree of north latitude nearly to the 80th, in a region so cold, that it is navigable only for a few weeks in summer.

and is seldom or never free from vast bodies of floating ice.

Of the Gulf of the Iroquois. The river Iroquois, or St. Lawrence opens into a bay ninety miles wide, at its junction with the waters of the Atlantic. In front of it is the large island of Newfoundland, almost four hundred miles in length, and within it, are St. John's, Anticosti and others. On the north, between Newfoundland and Labrador, is the strait of Bellefleur, about twenty miles wide; and on the south a still wider channel by which this gulf communicates with the Atlantic.

Of the Bay of Fundy. This is a considerable arm of the sea, extending north east from the north limit of the United States, about two hundred miles, into the territory of Nova Scotia. At its entrance from the sea, it is twelve leagues wide, but narrows as it proceeds into the land. It is remarkable for its tides, which by means of the compression of its waters between the adjacent shores, are swelled to forty and even sixty feet. So rapidly is the flood tide poured into the gulf, that small animals, feeding on the flats, are sometimes overtaken and drowned.

Of smaller Bays. Between Fundy and the Delaware, are many small bays, which form excellent harbors—among which are Passamaquoddy Bay, at the mouth of the river Scoodic—Penobscot Bay, at the mouth of the river of that name—Casco Bay, on the south of the entrance into the Kennebec—Boston Bay, between Cape Ann and Cape Cod—Barnstable Bay, on the north, and Buzzard's Bay on the south of Cape Cod—and Narraganset's Bay in Rhode Island.

Of the Delaware. The Delaware is a large bay, communicating with the Atlantic between Cape May on the north and Henlopen on the south. It extends about sixty miles within the land, and receives Delaware River, at Bombay Hook.

Of the Chesapeake. This bay communicates with the ocean between Cape Charles on the north and Henry on

the south. It stretches into the land two hundred and sixty miles, with a breadth of about six leagues; dividing Virginia and a part of Maryland—that part between the bay and the sea being called the Eastern Shore. It terminates on the north at Elkton in Maryland—receiving some of the largest rivers in America, and furnishing a vast inland navigation, thro a fertile and populous country.

Of remarkable Capes and Points. On the coast of the Carolinas, are Cape Fear and Cape Hatteras, which extend far into the ocean, and projecting still farther dangerous shoals. Cape Cod on the shore of Massachusetts is equally remarkable. It extends into the ocean in form of an elbow, about sixty five miles, and the peninsula is from three to nine miles broad. Beyond the Cape lie very extensive shoals.

Of Peninsulas. The strip of land between the Chesopeek and the ocean, is a remarkable peninsula, two hundred and fifty miles long, and almost uniformly level. Cape Cod forms another remarkable peninsula. The town of Boston stands on a peninsula. The south eastern part of Nova Scotia is an extensive peninsula, formed by the bay of Fundy. On this stands Halifax, a considerable town, on a fine harbor and the capital of the Province. The southern point of this land is called Cape Sable.

Of Swamps and Morasses. When water cannot find a passage to the ocean, or when a level plain adjoins the sea and rivers, the water forms a swamp, marsh, or morass. In such situations the water stagnates, loses its purity, and becomes impregnated with putrescent substances, as wood and plants, which generate innumerable insects, and emit exhalations, noxious to the neighboring inhabitants. The principal morasses in the United States, are on the borders of the sea or the rivers to the southward of the Hudson. The most considerable swamps are those called Dismal, in Virginia and North Carolina, one of which is thirty miles

in length, by ten in breadth, and covered with trees, reeds, briars, and various kinds of shrubs. The Waquapanoka, a swamp in Georgia, is three hundred miles in length.

Of the Gulf Stream. A remarkable current in the Atlantic, running from south west to north east, along the American coast from Florida to Newfoundland, is called the Gulf Stream. The name is derived from an opinion that this current is occasioned by the waters of the Gulf of Mexico, which are accumulated there by the force of the trade winds, and which find a passage from the gulf between the American shore and the Bahama islands. It is more probable that a concurring, if not a chief cause, is the general current of the Atlantic which sets to the southward, and meeting with the continent of South America, a part of the waters are repelled and forced into a counter current, along the shore thro the gulf.

Of the properties of this Current. This current moves at the rate of two or three miles an hour. It is distant from the American shore from 70 to 150 miles, according as the shore projects in capes or retires in bays. It proceeds to the bank of Newfoundland, where it turns to the east and appears to be lost in the general current of the Atlantic, which sets to the southward washing the western isles and the African shore. Its waters, coming from a tropical climate, are warmer than the waters on soundings along the American shore. It is also unfathomable, and deep water, in the ocean, is warmer than water on banks and shoals.

SECTION IV.

ORIGIN OF MAN, AND OF THE AMERICANS.

Of the first peopling of the earth.

THE first information we have respecting the peopling of this globe, is given in the Holy Scriptures. From them it appears, that the first inhabitants were planted in the fertile and pleasant countries near the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, in Mesopotamia and Babylonia. From them sprung the various nations, in Asia, Europe, Africa and America.

Of the progress of science and civilization. Those countries which were first peopled and whose mild climate and fertile soil, invited the fixed residence of men, were first enlightened with the beams of science. Among these were Assyria and Egypt. In Assyria we first hear of the Hebrew tongue, the parent of those languages which afterwards were spread over Egypt, Greece and Italy, and the first language of which we have any knowledge. From Assyria to Egypt and from Egypt to Greece, and thence to Rome, letters were propagated, and the rude inhabitants were instructed in the arts and sciences.

Of the Peopling of America. It is evident that many centuries after the old continent was well inhabited, and highly civilized, the American Continent remained the residence of wild beasts only. By what means men found their way to this continent, is not quite certain ; but there is good reason to believe, they passed from the northern parts of Tartary, to the north western coast of America, not long after, and perhaps before the Christian Era. The Mexican traditions and historical paintings all deduce the origin of the Mexican nations from the north west.

Of the progress of settlements by the natives. It is very probable from the Mexican history, that the natives of America, migrated in hords, clans or tribes, moving like the Tartars, with their families and substance

These tribes probably ranged first along the western shore of North America, following each other in succession, like waves following waves, as they were invited to the south, by the mildness of the climate, or were driven by other tribes in their rear; until they seated themselves in the warm and fertile vales of Mexico. That country as well as Peru had become very populous when first visited by Europeans.

Of the settlements on the Atlantic. It is probable that when the warmer regions of America had become populous, the Indians began to spread themselves over the eastern parts of the continent, following the course of rivers, and the shore of the Atlantic. In this progress, they would first find the rivers that fall into the Mississippi, and pursuing them, would find and plant the rich intervals on these rivers. Then continuing their course, they would be led along the Alabama, the Tennessee, the Ohio and the Waubosh, to their sources and crossing the mountains and the lakes, would pursue the streams that fall into the Atlantic. And hence perhaps the tradition among the Indians of the United States, that their ancestors came from the south west, and that the great Spirit resides in that quarter.

Of the time when America was first peopled. The Toltecas, the most ancient tribe in Mexico, date their establishment in that country, as far back as the seventh century of our era. This nation was nearly destroyed by a famine and mortal pestilence about the year one thousand and thirty one. Other tribes succeeded this, and in the twelfth century, the Mexican tribe, which lived on the north of the Gulf of California, migrated, and after various removals, fixed their abode in the country, which bears their name, about the year thirteen hundred and twenty five. This was about two hundred years before the Spaniards discovered and conquered the country.

Of the Resemblance among the Indian tribes. All the tribes of the primitive inhabitants of America, appear

to resemble each other, in all essential parts of their character, except the Esquimaux, in Labrador. The people of Mexico and Peru, when first discovered, had made considerable advances towards an enlightened state, beyond the other nations. This was owing to a crowded population, which compelled them to cultivate the earth and attend to the arts for subsistence. But in the northern parts of this continent the Indians lived in a wild, savage state.

Of the Climate of Mexico. Mexico, the capital city of the country, is in the nineteenth degree of north latitude, and of course in a warm climate. The valleys and plains of the country are hot, but the mountains are so high as to have a temperate air, and some of them at times, are clothed with snow.

Of the City of Mexico. Mexico was founded in the year 1325, on a small island in the midst of the Lake Tezeuco. It was surrounded by water, but communicated with the land, by three crossways, raised with earth and stone, wide enough for ten horsemen to ride abreast; besides two, which were narrower and supported aqueducts to convey water to the city. When taken by the Spaniards, it was ten miles in circumference, and contained sixty thousand houses.

Of the Buildings of the Mexicans. The Mexicans did not know the use of iron, but they had axes of copper, and were acquainted with the use of lime. Their public buildings were of great size, with walls of stone laid in lime, and some of them polished to an uncommon degree. They built bridges also with stone arches.

Of the Religion of the Mexicans. The Mexicans had an imperfect idea of a Supreme Being, and believing him to be invisible, they never represented him by sensible objects. They believed also, like the Greeks and Romans, in a number of inferior deities, who presided over the air, fire, earth, water, mountains and the like; and they believed also in an evil spirit, or god of darkness. They deified the sun and moon

and believed in the doctrine of transmigration ; that is, that the souls of men after death pass into other animals, as cattle, birds, fishes and the like.

Of the Worship of the Mexicans. Altho the Mexicans did not represent the Supreme God by any sensible objects, yet they had images of their inferior deities, made of stone, wood, and some of them of gold or other metals. These were worshipped with prayers, fasting and other austerities, kneeling and prostrations, with many rites and ceremonies. To these idols also they sacrificed human victims, selected from their slaves or prisoners of war, in such numbers and with such barbarity that the accounts of them cannot be read without horror and astonishment. Such is the state of nations, who do not enjoy the advantages of civilization and the Christian religion.

Of the traditions respecting the Deluge, &c. The Mexicans had distinct traditions among them of the creation of the world, the universal deluge, the confusion of languages, and the dispersion of mankind ; and these events they had represented in their paintings. They believed that all mankind had been overwhelmed with an inundation, except one man and one woman, who were saved in a small boat and landed on a mountain. But these traditions were mingled with many fables.

Of the Priests. The idolatry of the Mexican nations was remarkable for the number of priests, consecrated to the respective gods. It was their business to perform the sacrifices, compose hymns, take care of the temples and ornaments of the altars, keep the calendar, preserve the paintings, direct the festivals, instruct the youth, and offer incense. The priests never shaved their faces, but painted their bodies, bathed every evening, fasted often, and observed great temperance and austerities. The Mexicans all practiced severe cruelties on their own bodies, such as piercing and mangling the flesh, absurdly imagining that such mortifications would please their deities.

Of the Mexican Year. The year among the Mexicans consisted of three hundred and sixty five days. These days were distributed into eighteen months of twenty days each, and the five additional days were called, *useless*, and employed in receiving and returning visits. The year began on the 26th day of February ; but every fourth year it began one day earlier. The century or long period consisted of fifty two years, which was divided into four periods of thirteen years each ; and the year, every fourth year, beginning one day earlier, thirteen of these anticipated days carried back the beginning of the year, at the close of the century, to the fourteenth of February. Then the new century again began on the 26th.

Ceremonies at the Birth of a child. When a child was born, it was immediately bathed in water, and the gods were implored to be propitious to the infant—On this occasion the parents received the congratulations of their friends. The diviners were also consulted as to the future good or ill fortune of the child ; for the Mexicans, like other ignorant people, were believers in lucky and unlucky days and signs. On the fifth day, after the birth, the child was bathed a second time, when the friends were invited and if the parents were rich, great entertainments were made, and suits of apparel given to the guests. On this occasion, if the child was a male, a bow and arrows, or some instrument or habit which the child would use, when grown up, were prepared ; and if a female, a spindle, or some dress suitable for one of her condition.

Of the Marriage Ceremonies. Marriage agreements among the Mexicans, were made by the parents, after consulting the oracles or diviners, who pronounced on the omens of good or ill. The damsel was solicited by women chosen for that purpose, who went to the house at midnight. In all cases, the parents of the young woman refused to grant the *first* request. At the second request, the parents deliberated with the relations, and afterwards sent an answer. At the day

appointed for the nuptials, the parents conducted the bride to the house of her father-in-law; where a priest tied a corner of her gown to the mantle of the bridegroom—she then walked round a fire, and both bride and bridegroom offered copal to the gods by way of incense, and exchanged presents with each other. At supper, they gave mouthfuls to each other alternately, and the ceremony was concluded by the attendants with dancing.

Of the Funeral Rites. In burying the dead, the Mexicans practiced many superstitious ceremonies; among which was the dressing of the body with pieces of paper and then with a habit suitable to the rank of the deceased, and his occupation in life. They gave to the dead also a jug of water to serve him on the journey, and killed a small animal like a dog, and tying a string about its neck, buried it with the deceased, as a companion on his way; or if the dead body was burned, the animal was burnt also and his ashes collected and buried in an earthen pot, and eighty days after, they made over it oblations of bread and wine.—When a prince died, his body was clothed with cotton garments richly ornamented with gold, silver and gems; and his slave and attendants were killed, to serve him in their respective offices in the other world.

Of the Education of Youth. The Mexicans, notwithstanding their many superstitious and barbarous customs, exhibited, in their manner of educating youth, an example worthy of imitation. All mothers, if able, nursed their own children—and if a stranger was taken as a nurse, none was accepted unless of sound health. Children were accustomed to endure hardships, heat and cold. They were early taught to attend the temples and worship the gods, imploring their aid and protection—to abhor vice and to be modest and respectful to aged people. The boys were instructed in the use of arms or utensils of some art; the girls were taught to spin and weave—and all were directed to bathe often and observe great cleanliness.

Of the Punishment of the Vices of Youth. Great respect was paid to truth among the Mexicans; and whenever a child was detected in a lie, they pricked his lip with the thorn of the aloe. They tied the feet of girls that were too fond of walking abroad. A disobedient or quarrelsome boy was beat with nettles. Another punishment was to make the offender receive into his nostrils the smoke of the chilli, a kind of pepper.

Of the Government of the Mexican Empire. The Mexicans were governed by a monarch, but he was chosen by four Electors appointed for that purpose, from among the noble families, and distinguished by their prudence and probity. As soon as they had made a choice, their electoral power expired, and a new appointment was made forthwith, either of the same or of other persons. If a vacancy happened among the electors, before the death of the king, his place was immediately supplied by a new appointment. The laws of the empire obliged the electors to chuse a king from among the brothers, nephews or cousins of the deceased king.

Of the Classes of People. The Mexicans were divided into nobles, priests and common people. Of the nobility there were different ranks, each of which had its own proper privileges and badge. The nobles wore ornaments of gold and gems on their garments, and to them belonged exclusively the right of enjoying the high offices at court. To entitle a man to the first rank of nobility, he must possess great wealth, and have given unquestionable proof of his bravery in battle. He was also compelled to undergo without complaint, fasting, abstinence, and reproaches. A principal badge of this dignity was, an ornament of gold suspended from the cartilage of the nose.

Of Landed Property. Lands in Mexico were divided between the crown, the nobles, the cities or communities, and the temples. The crown lands were held by certain noblemen, who made an acknowleg-

ment for them to the king, by presenting him with birds, or nosegays of flowers, when they paid him a visit; and they were also obliged to repair the royal palace, if necessary; to aid and direct in cultivating his garden, and to attend him, when he appeared in public. These lands descended to the eldest son of the noble, but could not be alienated.

Of the Lands of the Nobles and Communities. The lands which the nobles owned were transmitted from father to son; some of these could be sold, but not to plebeians or common people.

The property of the cities or villages was divided among them according to their number, and each district held its share, independent of the others. These lands could not be alienated.

Of the Public Revenues. All the conquered provinces of Mexico paid tribute in fruits, animals and the metals of the country, according to a certain rate—merchants paid their portion in goods, and artisans in the productions of their labors. In the capital of each province, was a magazine for the corn, and other articles paid as tribute. One province was taxed with the payment of four thousand handfuls of beautiful feathers—another, paid twenty bags of cochineal—a third, a certain quantity of coco, cotton garments, or tiger skins—a fourth, a certain number of plates of gold, necklaces, earrings or emeralds—and a fifth, a number of cups of honey, or basons of yellow ocher, axes, mats and the like.

Of Courts of Justice. In most of the large cities and provinces, justice was administered among the Mexicans, by a supreme magistrate, from whose sentence, whether in civil or criminal cases, there was no appeal. The officer appointed the subordinate judges, and the receivers of revenue, within his district, and any one who usurped his authority or made use of his ensigns, was punished with death. In one kingdom, the judges were rendered independent, by estates assigned to their office, and passing to their successors, not to their heirs.

The Mexicans had no lawyers or professional advocates; every suitor and criminal producing his witnesses and making his own allegations.

Of the Laws and Punishments. The Mexicans were governed by fixed laws, which were rigorously enforced. Treason was punished by tearing the traitor in pieces; those who were privy to it, and did not disclose it, were deprived of their liberty. To maltreat an ambassador, minister or public messenger was death. The same punishment was inflicted on those who excited sedition; on those who removed or changed boundaries of lands, established by authority; on judges who gave sentence contrary to law, or took bribes; on those who altered measures ordained by law; on those who disobeyed military orders; on murderers, and those guilty of incest, adultery and unnatural crimes. Guardians who embezzled the estate of their wards, were hanged without mercy; and so were sons who squandered their patrimony in vices.

Of other Crimes. It was a capital crime for one sex to dress in the garments of the other—and to rob in the market. The thief of an article of little value, was punished only by being compelled to restore it; if a person stole things of value, he was made the slave of the person injured. If the thief could not make compensation, or the thing stolen did not exist, he was stoned to death. To steal maiz was a crime, but a poor traveller was permitted to take of maiz or fruits near the highway, as much as would satisfy present hunger. Drunkenness in youth was a capital offense; in older persons, was punished with severity—a nobleman being stripped of his rank and office, and a plebeian being shaved and having his house demolished. One who told a lie to the injury of another, lost a part of his lip or his ears.

Of War. No profession among the Mexicans was held more honorable than that of arms. No person could be crowned king, until he had given full proof of his courage, and had taken with his own hands, the

victims to be sacrificed at his coronation. Those who died in the service of their country, were supposed to be the happiest in another life. Great pains was taken to inure children to labor, hardships and danger; and to inspire them with high notions of military honor. To reward the services of warriors, the Mexicans devised three military orders—that of Princes, of Eagles and of Tigers, which were distinguished by particular badges, or armor.

Of Military Dress. When the Mexicans went to battle, they wore only a coarse white habit; and no person was entitled to change this plain dress for one more costly, without having given proofs of bravery. The king, besides his armor, wore on his legs a kind of half boots, made of thin plates of gold; on his arms plates of the same, and bracelets of gold; at his under lip hung an emerald set in gold; at his ears, he wore earrings of the same stone; about his neck a necklace or chain of gold; and a plume of beautiful feathers on his head; together with a splendid badge consisting of a wreath of feathers, reaching from his head down his back. The common soldiers wore only a girdle round the waist, but painted their bodies.

Of the Defensive Arms of the Mexicans. The defensive armor of the Mexicans consisted in shields made in different forms and of various materials. Some were wholly round; others, on one side only. Some were made of solid elastic canes, interwove with cotton threads, and covered with feathers. The shields of the nobles, were made of thin plates of gold, or tortoise shells, adorned with gold, silver or copper. Some were made so as to be folded and carried under the arms, like an umbrella. The officers had breastplates of cotton very thick and proof against arrows. They also covered the chest, the thighs and half of the arms, and wore a case over the head, in shape of the head of a tiger or serpent, which gave them a frightful appearance.

Of the Offensive Arms. The weapons of war among the Mexicans were arrows, slings, clubs, spears, pikes,

swords and darts. Their bows were made of a strong elastic wood, and the string of the sinews of animals or the hair of the stag. Their arrows were pointed with a sharp bone, or piece of flint. They never used poisoned arrows. Their sword was a stout stick, three feet and a half long, and four inches broad, armed with a sort of sharp knife of stone, firmly fastened to it with gum lack. With this, a horse might be beheaded at a single stroke. Their pikes, some of which were eighteen feet long, were pointed with flint or copper. The dart was a small lance of wood hardened in the fire or shod with copper. To this was tied a string, for pulling it back after it was thrown.

Of the Manner of making War. It was a laudable custom with the Mexicans, before a declaration of war, to send Embassadors to the enemy, for the purpose of dissuading from hostilities. By representing and enforcing, in powerful language, the miseries of war, they sometimes effected a reconciliation and preserved peace. In battle, it was less their desire to kill their enemies, than to take them prisoners, for the purpose of sacrifice. Each nation had its ensign—that of Mexico was an eagle darting upon a tiger; that of Tlascala, an eagle with its wings spread.—Their martial music consisted of drums, horns and sea shells. For fortifications, they used palisades, ditches, walls and ramparts of earth or stone.

Of Agriculture and Gardening. The principal article cultivated for food by the Mexicans, was maize, or indian corn; an invaluable grain first found in America. They had neither plows, oxen nor horses to prepare the ground for planting; but a hoe, made of copper. They planted maize in the manner now practiced in our country. They made great use of rivulets for watering their lands, conducting the water by canals from the hills. They cultivated gardens to great perfection, and from them supplied Mexico with great abundance of plants, fruits and flowers. By means of twisted willows and roots, they made a sub-

stratum which, being covered with earth, constituted floating gardens on the lakes, which were a great curiosity.

Of the Mexican Money. The Mexicans used the following articles as money—a species of coco, a piece of which represented a certain *number*; or if a large sum was used, it passed in sacks, each being of a certain value—small pieces of cotton—gold dust in goose quills—pieces of copper in the form of a T—and thin pieces of tin—all which had their particular value and use.

Of the Mexican Language. The Mexicans had no knowledge of letters; and their language contained the sounds of twenty of our letters only; but it was copious and very expressive. Almost all words had the accent on the last syllable except one. In the place of letters and words, the Mexicans used, for recording events, paintings, which by means of perfect system and regularity of figures and positions, represented facts with great certainty. These historical paintings were preserved with great care by the Mexicans, and such of them as escaped destruction, at the time of the conquest by the Spaniards, are the sources from which the history of that country is derived—But the Spaniards, ignorant of their use, and at first supposing them to be applied to idolatrous purposes, destroyed, with frantic zeal, all they could find.

Of Cloth and Paper. The materials used by the Mexicans for painting, were cloth made of the threds of the aloe, or the palm, dressed skins and paper. The paper was made of the leaves of a species of the aloe, steeped together like hemp or flax, then washed, stretched and smoothed. It was as thick as pasteboard, but softer, smoother and easy to receive impressions. In general the sheets were long and rolled up for preservation, like the parchments of the ancients in Europe and Asia. The colors used in painting were obtained from plants and flowers, and were exquisitely beautiful.

Of Sculpture and casting of Metals. Altho the Mexicans had not the use of iron or steel, yet by means of

flint stone, they carved images in stone and wood, with great exactness. The images of their gods were numberless. But the casting of precious metals into curious figures, was an art in which the Mexicans excelled most nations which were more advanced in civilization. The founders made the figure of a fish, with the scales alternately one of gold and the other of silver—a parrot with a movable head, tongue and wings—an ape with a movable head and feet, with a spindle in its paw, in the act of spinning—and so exquisite was the work of some of these figures, that the Spaniards, fond as they were of the gold, valued the workmanship more than the metal.

Of the Mexican Theater. The stage among the Mexicans was a square terrace raised and uncovered; or the lower area of some temple. Here actors displayed their comic powers in representing various characters and scenes in life. Some feigned themselves deaf, sick, lame, blind or crippled, and addressed an idol for the return of health. Some mimicked animals, or appeared under their names, disguised in the form of toads, beetles or lizards. These coarse representations were the dramatic amusements of the Mexicans, which concluded with a grand dance of the spectators.

Of Manufactures. The Mexicans had no wool, silk, hemp or flax; but cotton, fethers, hair, mountain palm and aloes, supplied their place. Of fethers, interwove with cotton, were formed mantles, gowns, carpets and bed curtains. Waistcoats for the nobles and other garments were made of cotton interwove with the finest hair from the belly of the rabbit. The leaves of the maguay furnished a fine thred, equal to that of flax; and the palm supplied that which was coarser. These were prepared for use, nearly in the manner we prepare flax and hemp. Of these plants also were made mats, ropes, shoes, and many other articles of common use.

Of the Food. The principal plant cultivated for food was maiz; but coco, chia and beans were also

used. Bread was made of maiz in this manner—The grain was first boiled with a little lime ; when soft, it was rubbed between the hands, which took off the skin—then pounded into a paste and baked in a pan. The nobles mixed some fragrant herbs with their bread to give it a flavor. Cookery was the business of the women. The Mexicans not having cattle or sheep, reared and used vast numbers of fowls, and small animals ; as turkies, quails, geese, ducks, deer, rabbits and fish. Their drinks were beverages made by fermentation from the juice of the maguay, or aloe, the palm, the stem of maiz and the like.

Of the Dress and Ornaments. In the climate of Mexico, very little clothing was necessary. The poor wore a girdle ; and the higher classes, a girdle, and a mantle or cloke over the shoulders, about four feet long—and in winter a waistcoat. The shoe was a sole of lether or coarse cloth, under the foot tied with strings round the ancle. The Mexicans wore their hair long, thinking it dishonorable to be shaved. For ornaments they wore earrings, pendants at the underlip, or the nose ; bracelets on the arms, and rings like a collar on the legs. The rich used pearls, emeralds and other gems set in gold ; and the poor used shells, crystals or some shining stones.

Of the Furniture of the Houses. The beds of the Mexicans did not accord with the finery of their dress. Their beds were two coarse mats of rushes, to which the rich added fine palm mats and sheets of cotton. The cover of the bed was a mantle, or a counterpane of cotton and fethers. The table was a mat spread on the ground ; and napkins were used, as were plates, porringers, earthen pots and jugs, but no knives nor forks. For chairs, were used low seats of wood and rushes or palm, and reeds. The shell of a fruit like a gourd furnished cups. The Mexicans used no wax, tallow or oil for lights, but torches of wood, like pine knots. Tobacco was much used for smoking and in snuff. Insted of soap, were used the fruit and root of a particular tree.

Such was the state of society in Mexico, when the Spaniards invaded and conquered the country in the year 1521.

Of other Indian Nations in North America. The tribes of natives which were spread over the more northern regions of America, were far less advanced in knowledge, arts and civility, than the Mexicans. They all cultivated maize and beans, which constituted no small part of their food. Corn and beans boiled together when green, they called *suckotash*; a dish held in great esteem by their conquerors, and much used by us at this day. But the cultivation of the earth was wholly performed by the women. The men were occupied in war, or in hunting or fishing, which supplied them with the flesh of deer, bears, beavers, moose, raccoon and the like. They had no drink but water.

Of their Habitations and Furniture. The dwellings of the savages were huts called *wigwams*, made with poles fixed in the ground, bent together, fastened at the top, and covered with bark or mats of balrushes. The fire was in the middle of the hut, and an opening was left at the top for the smoke to escape. Their beds were mats or skins spread on boards a little raised. For cooking they used pots made of clay—their dishes and spoons were of wood, hollowed and made very smooth. Pails were formed of birch bark, made square, and furnished with a handle. Baskets were made of the same material, or of rushes, bents, husks of the maize, silk grass, or wild hemp, curiously wrought and ornamented.

Of their Drefs. The natives of the northern parts of America had no clothing, when the English first came among them, except the skins of wild beasts, and a few mantles made of fethers curiously interwoven. But all the natives of this country were very fond of beads and trinkets, for ornaments; fastening them to their arms, legs, nose and ears. When the Europeans began to trade with them, they exchanged their skins for blankets, and other cloths, and these are

their principal dress at this day : all savage nations are very fond of fethers.

Of their Money and Arms. The money of the northern Indians consisted in the wampumpeague, usually called *wampum*, which was made of small shells curiously joined and wrought into broad strings or belts. This was the medium of commerce, answering the purpose of silver and gold among other nations. The arms of the savages were bows and arrows, clubs, and especially the hatchet, called a *tomahawk*, which was a sharpened stone, with a handle. After the arrival of Europeans, they laid aside the stone, and procured iron hatchets. They throw these with astonishing dexterity, and are sure of hitting the object intended, at a great distance. They had no defensive armor, except a kind of shield made of bark.

Of their Canoes. All uncivilized nations make use of canoes, formed of bark or the trunks of trees made hollow. These are of various sizes—from ten feet in length to a hundred. To save labor, the Indians apply fire to the trunk of a large tree and burn it hollow ; then finish the canoe, by scraping and cutting. When bark is used, it is moulded into a suitable shape, strengthened with ribs of wood, soed with strings or threds of strong bark, and the seams smeared over with turpentine. The bark canoes are so light, that they are often carried by the Indians from river to river, or round falls and over necks of land.

Of their Virtues and Vices. The good and bad qualities of Indians are few, or confined to a few objects. In general, a savage is governed by his passions, without much restraint from the authority of his chiefs. He is remarkably hospitable to strangers, offering them the best accommodations he has, and always serving them first. He never forgets a favor or an injury ; but will make a grateful return for a favor, and revenge an injury whenever an opportunity offers, as long as he lives ; and the remembrance is hereditary ; for the child and

grandchild have the same passions, and will repay a kindness, or revenge a wrong, done to their ancestor.

Of their Government and Religion. The tribes of Indians were under a government somewhat like a monarchy, with a mixture of aristocracy. Their chiefs, called sagamores, sachems, or cazekes, possessed the powers of government; but they usually consulted the old men of the tribe, on all important questions.

Their religion was idolatry, for they worshipped the sun, the moon, the earth, fire, images and the like. They had an idea of the Supreme Being, which they called the *Great Spirit*; and they believed in an evil spirit. They had priests called, *parawaws*, who pretended to arts of conjuration, and who acted as their physicians.

Of the Colour and Figure of the primitive Americans. The color of the American Indians is nearly an olive; and is the same, with little diversity, in all latitudes. Their bodies are well formed, their hair long and black; their eyes usually black and dull; their teeth white; their beard scanty. In all these particulars they resemble the oriental Tartars. They are impatient of severe labor, but will walk or run with incredible speed. They have a high sense of liberty, and altho they are not acquainted with letters, they possess uncommon sagacity and quick apprehension. They are slow in deliberation, but animated and eloquent in their speeches; which abound with metaphors, bold, natural and expressive.

Of the Esquimaux. In Labrador, and about the strait of Davis, live a race or two of inhabitants altogether different from all the tribes in America. They are of small size, short legs, ill-shapen, with a broad face and flat nose—resembling the inhabitants of Lapland and Greenland, from whom it is supposed they descended. They subsist mostly on fish or flesh, which they eat raw or dried. Their climate is cold, and the winter long; during which those savages dwell in close huts or subterraneous caves, immersed in filth and stork.

SECTION V.

*Of the Discovery of America by Europeans.**Of Columbus.*

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, the first European who discovered the Western Continent, was a native of Genoa, and was bred to navigation. By his knowledge of the form of the earth, and of geography and astronomy, he was led to believe that there must be a continent on the west of the Atlantic to balance the vast tract of land on the east; and he imagined that by sailing westward, he might find a shorter course to China and the East Indies, than by travelling eastward. He therefore applied to the government of Genoa for assistance to enable him to undertake a voyage of discovery. He did not succeed. He then applied to Portugal, but with no better success. He was thought, as men of superior genius are often thought, a visionary projector.

Of Columbus's application to Spain. Columbus then made application to Ferdinand, king of Spain, for ships and men to proceed on a voyage westward; but for some years, he did not obtain his request. Finally, by the influence of the queen, Isabella, he obtained three ships and ninety men. He also obtained a Commission, dated April 30, 1492, constituting him Admiral, viceroy and governor, of all the islands and countries which he should discover and subdue, with full powers civil and criminal. With this authority, he sailed from Palos in Spain in August 1492.

Of the first Voyage. Not many days after Columbus left Spain, he was perplexed with the variations of the magnetic needle, which had not before been discovered, and which served to dishearten his mariners. To add to his perplexity, his seamen grew uneasy at venturing so far into an unexplored ocean, and threatened to throw him overboard, if he would not return. To quiet their minds, he promised that if land should

not appear within three days, he would return. On the third day, land was discovered, to the inexpressible joy of Columbus and of his seamen, who now humbled themselves for their refractory conduct. The land first seen was one of the Bahama islands, and on the 12th of October O. S. 1492.

Of the Discovery and Settlement of Hispaniola. Proceeding southward Columbus discovered Cuba, and Haiti; to the latter he gave the name of Hispaniola, which it still retains. Here he landed, entered into a friendly intercourse with the natives, built a fort, in which he left a garrison of thirty eight men, with orders to treat the natives with kindness, and sailed for Europe. On his voyage, a violent tempest arising, Columbus was apprehensive the ship would founder; and to afford a small chance that the world should not lose the benefit of his voyage, he wrote a short account of his discoveries, wrapped it in an oiled cloth, inclosed it in a cake of wax, and putting this into an empty cask, he committed it to the sea, in hopes that it might fall into the hands of some fortunate navigator, or be cast ashore. But the storm abated, and Columbus arrived safe in Spain.

Of the second Voyage of Columbus. In Sept. 1493, Columbus sailed from Cadiz on his second voyage to the new world, and discovered the Caribbee islands—to which he gave their present names—Dominico, Martagalant, Guadaloup, Mortferrat and Antigua. Then steering for Cuba, he saw Jamaica, and proceeded to Hispaniola. On his arrival, he found that the men whom he had left in garrison, had been guilty of violence and rapine, and were all destroyed by the natives.

Of the first permanent Settlement in America. As the first colony which Columbus left, was cut off, he sought a more convenient and healthful situation, marked out the plan of a town, erected a rampart, and built houses. This town he called Isabella, in honor of the queen, his benefactress. The government of

this colony he committed to his brother, Don Diego, who, after Columbus had departed for Europe, abandoned this spot, and removing to the south side of the island, began the town called St. Domingo, the first permanent establishment in the new world.—Columbus returned to Spain early in 1496.

Of Columbus's third Voyage. In May 1498, Columbus left Spain on his third voyage, and proceeding farther southward, discovered and named *Trinidad*, and in August, discovered the main land, or continent of South America, along which he coasted two hundred leagues westward ; then sailed to Hispaniola. When he arrived at St. Domingo, he found the colony in a mutinous state ; but by prudent and firm measures, he composed the troubles. In the mean time, the discontented men repaired to Spain, and by false representations, persuaded the king to appoint Bovadilla, governor of the new world, with orders to take Columbus and send him to Spain. This commission was executed with inhuman severity, and the great Columbus was sent to Spain in chains.—Such is the reward which great and good men receive from vile factious men.

Of the Name given to this Continent. In 1499, Alonso Ojedo made a voyage to the western continent. With him was one Amerigo, or Americus Vespucius, a native of Florence, who wrote an account of the voyage, and pretending that he was the first discoverer of the Main Land, the country was called after him, AMERICA ; which name, by the consent of nations, it has retained ; to the injury of Cabot and Columbus who had discovered the continent the preceding year.

Of Columbus's fourth Voyage. Columbus arrived in Spain bound like a criminal ; but was soon set at liberty by order of the king, to whom he justified his conduct in the most satisfactory manner. But he did not recover his authority, and Ovando was appointed governor of Hispaniola, in the place of Bovadilla. Columbus however prepared for a fourth voyage in

1502; intent upon finding a passage to the East Indies by the west. In this voyage, he entered the gulf of Darien, and examined the coast. But meeting with furious storms, he bore away for Hispaniola, and was shipwrecked on Jamaica.

Of the Fate of Columbus. Being cast on an island, at a distance of thirty leagues from Hispaniola, and his ships all destroyed, Columbus was in extreme distress. But the natives were kind and furnished him with two canoes, in which two of his friends with some Indians rowed themselves to St. Domingo. But the governor, Ovando, meanly jealous of Columbus, delayed to send a ship to bring him off, for eight months, during which time, Columbus was exposed to famine, to the natives and to the malice of his own mutinous seamen. At last he was relieved, and furnished with two ships, with which he sailed for Spain in 1504. Finding Isabella, his patroness, dead; and himself neglected, he sunk under his infirmities and died May 20, 1506, in the 59th year of his age.

Of the Pope's Grant to Spain. The king of Spain, to obtain a secure title to the new world, obtained from Pope Alexander the sixth, a bull or patent, dated at Rome, May 4th, 1493, in which the objects of the grant are said to be, to humanize and christianize the savage nations of the new world. By this charter, the king of Spain was invested with sovereign jurisdiction over all the islands and lands which had been or should be discovered, west of a line running from pole to pole, at the distance of one hundred leagues west of all the Azores, and the Cape de Verd islands—to be held by him, his heirs and successors forever—excepting such islands and countries as were then actually possessed by some christian king or prince.

Of the Progress of the Spanish Discoveries and Settlements. In the year 1500, one Pinzon, who had accompanied Columbus in his first voyage, sailed to America, crossed the equinoctial line, and discovered the Maranon, or Amazon, the largest river on the

globe. In the same year, one Cabral, a Portuguese, pushed his adventures further south, and discovered the country now called Brazil. Pinzon made a second voyage in 1508, with Solis, and proceeded as far south as the river which they called the river of *Plata*, or silver. In 1509 two adventurers, Ojedo and Nicuesa, attempted to form settlements on the continent, within the gulf of Darien, but were repelled by the natives. In the two following years, settlements were begun at Jamaica, Porto Rico, Darien and Cuba.

Of the Discovery of Florida and of the South Sea. In 1512, John Ponce, who had subdued Porto Rico, fitted out three ships and sailing northward fell in with land in the 30th degree of latitude, which he took possession of and called Florida. In the following year, one Balboa ascended the mountains of Darien, the narrow isthmus which connects North with South America, and espied the great South Sea, now called the Pacific Ocean. Delighted with this discovery, he proceeded to the water's edge, and wading in, till the water reached his waist, armed with his buckler and sword, he took possession of the ocean in the name of his king.

Of Discoveries in the Gulf of Mexico. In 1517, Cordova sailed from Cuba, discovered the great Peninsula of Yucatan, and the bay of Campeechy. But landing at the mouth of a river to procure fresh water, a considerable part of his men were killed and he was forced to return to Cuba, where he soon died. The next year, a more considerable force, under Grijalva, visited the same bay and encountering the natives, defeated them not without difficulty. To this country Grijalva gave the name of *New Spain*, which name it still bears; as well as that of Mexico, the name of the country among the natives.—This expedition returned to St. Jago without attempting a settlement.—In the same year, one Garay coasted along the northern shore of the Gulf of Mexico, to the river Panuco.

Of the Conquest of Mexico. In 1519, Velasquez,

governor of Cuba, fitted out an armament of eleven small vessels, and six hundred and seventeen men, under the command of Fernando Cortez, for the invasion of Mexico. As fire arms were not generally in use, only thirteen men had muskets; the rest being armed with cross bows, swords and spears. Cortez had however ten small field pieces, and sixteen horses—the first of these animals ever seen in that country. With this small force, Cortez landed in Mexico, to encounter one of the most powerful empires. After many negotiations, alliances, marches and counter marches; many battles and extreme hardships, Cortez subdued the Mexican Empire, then under the government of the brave, the hospitable, but unfortunate Montezuma, and entered the city of Mexico in triumph on the 13th of August 1521.

Of the Means by which Cortez conquered Mexico. It is a most instructive lesson which the fall of Mexico is calculated to teach. Cortez could not have made any impression on that great empire, containing many millions of people, had he not availed himself of the factions among the different provinces of the empire. But no sooner had he arrived, than one of the nations, which paid tribute to Montezuma, and was impatient to shake off the yoke, offered to join him. These were the Totonacas, who first assisted the Spaniards to conquer Mexico—and then were subdued in turn. Thus nations are often ruined by their own divisions—foolishly imagining to lessen the burthens of government, they revolt against their own king or state, join the invaders of their country, who first conquer their foes, and then rivet shackles on their allies.

Of the first Voyage round the Globe. While Cortez was conquering Mexico, Magellan, a distinguished navigator, who had served under the famous Portuguese adventurer, Alburquerque, fitted out five small ships and sailed from Spain in August 1519, in search of a passage to India by the west. Proceeding southward along the American coast, he entered the Strait

which now bears his name, doubled the southern point of this continent, lunched into the vast ocean, which he called the *Pacific*, touched at the Ladrões, and after enduring extreme distress from bad provisions and sickness, arrived at the Philippines, where a contest with the natives arose, in which he lost his life. But his officers proceeded on their voyage, passed the Cape of Good Hope, and arrived in Spain in September 1522. This was the first time that any mortal had encompassed the globe.

Of the Discovery of Peru. After Balboa had discovered the South Sea, a settlement was made on the western side of Darien, called Panama. From this town, several attempts had been made to explore the southern continent, but without any remarkable occurrence. In 1524, three persons, Pizarro, Almagro and de Luque associated for the purpose of extending their adventures and discoveries. Their first expedition was attended with ill success. Pizarro however in a second attempt, failed as far as Peru, and discovered that rich and flourishing country. Pleased with the discovery, he returned to Panama, and was sent by the governor to Spain for a commission, and a military force to support an expedition and ensure success.

Of the Conquest of Peru. Pizarro obtained a commission and a small force, and returned to Panama; from whence he sailed in February 1531, to attempt the conquest of one of the finest kingdoms in America, with no more than one hundred and eighty men. With these and a small reinforcement, he marched to the residence of the king, and having invited him to a friendly interview, in which he attempted to persuade him to adopt the christian religion, he, with matchless perfidy, seized the monarch a prisoner, and ordering his soldiers to slay his unsuspecting, and astonished attendants, four thousand were slain without resistance.

Of the Progress of Pizarro. The Peruvian monarch, Atahualpa, was no sooner a prisoner, than he devised the means of procuring his release. Finding the Span-

iards excessively eager after gold, he offered to fill the apartment in which he was confined, which was twenty two feet by sixteen, with vessels of gold and silver, as high as he could reach. This offer was accepted, and gold was collected from distant parts of the empire, until the treasure amounted to more than the value of two millions of dollars, which was divided among the conquerors. But the perfidious Pizarro would not then release the Inca; he still kept him a prisoner; and Almagro having joined him with a reinforcement, they brought the Inca to trial before a court erected for the occasion—charged him with being an usurper and an idolater, condemned and executed him. The Peruvian government being destroyed, all parts of the empire were successively subdued.

Of the State of Peru when Conquered. The Spaniards found the Peruvians farther advanced towards civilization, than any American nation, except the Mexicans; and in some respects, farther than that nation. About three hundred years before the invasion of the Spaniards, a man and woman of superior genius arrived in that country, who, pretending to be descended from the sun, commanded an uncommon degree of veneration. The man, whose name was Manco Capac, collected the wandering tribes into a social union, instructed them in the useful arts, curbed their passions, enacted salutary laws, made a judicious distribution of lands and directed them to be tilled; in short he laid the foundation of a great and a prosperous empire. Mama Ocollo, the woman, taught the arts of spinning and weaving. Manco Capac was called *Inca*, or Lord, and his descendants governed this happy nation for twelve generations. By the laws of this empire, human sacrifices were forbid, and the general policy of its institutions was mild.

Of the Causes of the Ruin of Peru. Just before the Spaniards landed in Peru, that kingdom had been torn with factions and civil war. Huana Capac, the twelfth in descent from Manco, had two sons; one

by a wife of the royal blood of the Incas, called Huascar; another named Atahualpa, by a woman of foreign blood. He appointed the latter his successor in the government of Quito, which disgusted the lawful heir, Huascar. This produced a war in which Atahualpa triumphed: Huascar was defeated, and taken prisoner. In this situation was the kingdom of Peru, when the Spaniards arrived. Thus weakened by internal divisions, it fell an easy prey to the invaders. Such are the deplorable effects of factions and dissensions, which usually begin in the lawless ambition of bold, daring men, and end in public misery!

*Of the first Expedition on the Marañon.** In the year 1540, Gonzalo, a brother of Pizarro, and governor of Quito, crossed the Andes with a body of troops, and a great number of Indians to carry their provisions, with a view to make discoveries. After a long march amidst precipices, rocks, thick woods and morasses, they arrived at a large river, called Napo, which is one of the head branches of the Marañon. Here they built a small vessel, on board of which were transported the provisions and baggage, under the command of Orellana, with fifty men, while the rest marched along the bank. But Orellana betrayed his trust, and being wafted along the stream with rapidity, he left Gonzalo and his attendants; entered the vast river, Marañon, and pursuing his course to the mouth, a distance of four or five thousand miles, he had the good fortune to reach the Spanish settlement at Cubagua in safety. This was the first time that any European had explored the largest river on earth, and one of the boldest enterprizes recorded. Gonzalo, confounded at the treachery of Orellana, was obliged to return to Quito, distant twelve hundred miles, in which journey, four thousand Indians and two hundred and ten Spaniards perished with famine and fatigue.

* Improperly called Amazon.

Of the Fate of Pizarro and Almagro. Mankind are seldom contented even with the splendor of power and riches. The conquerors of Peru soon began to be jealous of each other, and to contend for dominion. Each having the government of a certain district of country, but the limits not well known, a civil war commenced, in which Almagro was defeated and taken prisoner; tried, condemned and executed. His son Almagro, the young, resolved to avenge his father's wrongs, and collecting a body of firm adherents, he privately marched to the house of Pizarro, attacked him at midday, and slew him and his attendants. — Such was the fate of these bold, but inhuman conquerors, and such the reward of their cruelty, avarice, and perfidy!

SECTION VI.

Of the discovery and settlement of North America.

Of Cabot.

SOON after the new world was discovered by Columbus, a spirit of enterprize was excited in all the commercial nations of Europe. The first adventurer from England was John Cabot, a native of Venice, residing in Bristol; who, under a commission from Henry VII, sailed on a voyage of discovery. On the 24th of June 1494 or 5, he discovered land, which he called *Prima Vista*, which, in Italian, his native language, signify *first sight*. This land is supposed to be Newfoundland. He discovered also an island which he called St. John's, on which he landed. His son Sebastian is understood to have accompanied him in this voyage.

Of the second Voyage. King Henry granted to John Cabot and his three sons, Lewis, Sebastian and Sanctius, a commission dated March 5th 1496, authorising

them to discover and take possession of unknown lands, and to erect his banners on any land by them already discovered. On the 3d of February 1498, he gave them a license to take ships for this purpose in any port of the kingdom. In this year, Sebastian Cabot first discovered the Continent, north of the St. Lawrence, since called Labrador, and coasted along the shore from 67 degrees of North Latitude to Florida. He made a chart of the coast, which, for a century, hung under his picture in Whitehall. He was the first discoverer of the *Continent*, for he made the land June 11, O. S. Whereas, Columbus did not discover the Continent till August 1.

Of other Voyages to North America. Cabot made a voyage to America and proceeded south as far as Brazil, in 1516. One Verrazano was sent by the French king to make discoveries in 1524, and this man sailed along the North American coast to the fiftieth degree of N. latitude. He named the country New France. In 1528, Narvaez, a Spaniard, sailed from Cuba with four hundred men, to make a settlement in Florida. He landed and marched into the country of the Apalaches; and after travelling over two or three hundred leagues of country, with incredible fatigue, finding no gold or silver of any value, harassed by the savages, and reduced by hunger to the necessity of feeding on human flesh, most of them perished and a few survivors only found their way to Mexico.

Of the first Attempt to settle Canada. One Cartier, a Frenchman, sailed to America and entered the bay of the Iroquois, in 1534, with the view to find a north west passage to India. He returned to France, but the next year he pursued the same course, entered the river, and penetrated as far as Montreal, where he built a fort and spent the winter. The next summer, he invited some of the natives on board of his ship, and treacherously carried them to France, to obtain from them a more perfect knowledge of the country. But *the natives* were so much provoked, that the inter-

course of the French traders with them was much retarded. At this time a settlement was not effected.

Of the first Settlement of Acadia. Cartier obtained from the French king, Francis I. a commission for discovering and planting new countries, dated October 17, 1540. The royal motive assigned in the commission was, to introduce among the heathen, the knowledge of the gospel and the Catholic faith. With this authority, Cartier, in connection with the Baron de Roberval, brought two hundred men and women to America and began a plantation four leagues above the haven of St. Croix. This territory was called Acadia, by the French; but by the English, has been called Nova Scotia.

Of Soto's Expedition in Florida. Ferdinand de Soto had served under Pizarro in the conquest of Peru, with such reputation as to obtain from the King of Spain the government of Cuba, with the rank of General of Florida, and Marquis of the lands he should conquer. This enterprising commander collected a body of nine hundred foot and three hundred and fifty horse, for an expedition into Florida, where he landed in May 1539. From the gulf of Mexico he penetrated into the country northward, and wandered about in search of gold, exposed to famine, hardships and the opposition of the natives. He pursued his course north to the country inhabited by the Chickesaws, where he spent a winter. He then crossed the Mississippi, being the first European that had discovered that vast river. After a long march into the country westward, in which Soto died, the remains of his troops returned to the Mississippi. Here they built a number of small vessels, in which they sailed down the stream, and made the best of their way to Panuco in Mexico, where they arrived in Sept. 1543. In this extraordinary expedition of more than four years duration, in the wilderness, and among hostile savages, more than half the men perished. Such was the unconquerable desire of gold in the Spaniards of that age!

Of the Settlement of Carolina. In 1562, John Ribaud, a French Protestant, during the civil war in

France, formed a design of making a settlement in America, as a retreat from persecution. With two ships of war and a considerable body of forces, he sailed to America, made land in the thirtieth degree of latitude, and not finding a harbor, proceeded northerly, till he discovered a river, which he called May river, now Edisto. Near this he built a fort, in which he left a garrison of twenty six men, and calling it *Caroline*, returned to France. During the following winter, the garrison mutinied, assassinated Albert, their commander, and fearing they should not receive supplies, they embarked, in the spring, for Europe. Being becalmed for twenty days, and provisions failing, they appeased their hunger with human flesh—at last they were taken up by an English ship, landed in England, and conducted to the queen to relate their adventures.

Of the Progress of the French Settlement. In 1564, Laudoniere, another Frenchman, carried another colony and planted them on the same spot. But the Spaniards, jealous of this settlement, sent a large force, which destroyed the colony, putting to death old and young, in the most barbarous manner, a few only escaping to France. Melandez, the Spanish commander, left there a garrison of twelve hundred men. One Gourges, a native of Gascony, to revenge this outrage, equipped three ships, landed in 1568, and with the assistance of the Indians, took the fort, razed it to the ground, and slew most of the Spaniards. Not being in a situation to keep possession, the French returned to France, and both nations abandoned the country.

Of the Voyages of Frobisher, Drake and Gilbert. In 1567, Capt. Frobisher sailed from England for the purpose of discovering a north west passage to the East Indies; but after penetrating the northern bays, as high as 63 degrees of latitude, the ice compelled him to desist and he returned. Sir Francis Drake circumnavigated the globe from 1577 to 1580; which was the second voyage round the world. In 1578, Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained a patent from queen Elizabeth, for

discovering and taking possession of unknown lands, which patent was dated June 11. The conditions of the grant were, that he and his associates should adhere to their allegiance, and observe the laws of England and pay to the crown a fifth of the gold and silver ore, which they should obtain. His first voyage was made in 1583. He discovered Newfoundland and the adjoining country, landed at St. John's; and took possession for the crown of England; but on his return, his ship foundered and he was lost.

Of Sir Walter Raleigh's Patent. Queen Elizabeth, by patent dated March 25, 1584, granted to Sir Walter Raleigh authority to discover, occupy and govern "remote, heathen and barbarous countries," not previously possessed by any christian prince or people. Under this commission, two ships commanded by Amidas and Barlow, arrived in America, in July 1584. These men landed at Roanoke, took possession of the country for the crown of England and called it *Virginia*. The spot where they took possession is now within the limits of North Carolina. They returned and giving a flattering account of the country, Sir Richard Greenville was sent the next year to begin a settlement.

Of the first Attempts to settle Virginia. The adventurers under Sir Richard Greenville were one hundred and seven, who fixed their residence on the island of Roanoke, and were left there under the command of Mr. Lane. These persons rambling into the country, without due caution, or provoking the Indians by their lawless conduct, many of them were cut off by the savages—others perished with want. The survivors were taken to England by Sir Francis Drake, the following year, after his expedition against the Spaniards, in which he sacked St. Jago in the Cape de Verde, pillaged St. Domingo, took Carthagena and forced the inhabitants to ransom it; then took and destroyed the fort at Augustine in Florida.

Of the Progress of the Settlements in Virginia. Within a fortnight after the first colony had departed for

England, Sir Richard Grenville arrived with provisions and an additional number of adventurers. Not finding the former colony, he left a few people and returned to England.—In 1587 a third expedition was prosecuted under Mr. White, with three ships, and one hundred and fifteen persons were left at Roanoke. It was three years before any supplies were sent to maintain this colony, and when Governor White arrived in 1590, no Englishmen were to be found, and it was evident they had perished with hunger or been slain by the savages. The last adventurers therefore returned, and all further attempts to establish a colony in Virginia were postponed.

Of Gosnold's Voyage to America. In the year 1602, Capt. Gosnold sailed from England with a small number of adventurers, arrived at Cape Cod and coasting southward landed on Cuttehunk, the most southerly of the Elizabeth Islands. On a small island, in a fresh water pond, within the large island, he built a hut and remained about six weeks. But his men not being willing to be left there, they all returned and effected nothing. Gosnold gave Cape Cod its name, from the abundance of Cod Fish about it—He also named the Elizabeth Islands, and Martha's Vinyard. But the island which he called Martha's Vinyard is a small island near it, now called Noman's land; the name has since been transferred to the present island of that name, which he called Dover Cliff, from the resemblance of the high steep bank, now called Gay Head, to the cliffs of Dover in England.

Of the French Settlements. The French King, by letters patent, dated November 8th, 1603, granted to de Monts the sole jurisdiction over the country called *Acadia*, extending "from the fortieth to the forty sixth degree of latitude," with the title of Lieutenant General, with power to appoint officers civil and military, to build forts, towns and the like. Under this patent, were made the French settlements on the Iroquois and in Nova Scotia, which afterwards proved the cause

and the scene of wars between France and England, and the source of innumerable calamities to the English Colonies, until the peace of 1763.

Of the Voyages of Davis and Weymouth. In 1585, Capt. John Davis made an attempt to find a north west passage to India, in which he proceeded to the sixty seventh degree of latitude, where meeting with fields of ice, in the strait that bears his name, he returned. The next year he pursued the same track and penetrated Baffin's bay to the eightieth degree of latitude, but returned, having done nothing, but barter a few toys for seal skins. In 1605, Sir George Weymouth made a like attempt, but fell to the southward, coasted along New England, entered the bay of Pemquid, but returned without accomplishing any important object, except carrying to England three natives, who were afterwards useful to the Plymouth company in their attempts to settle America.

Of the First Charter of Virginia. The first grant from the crown of England, under which effectual settlements were made in Virginia and New England, was dated April 10, 1606. By this charter, king James assigned to Sir Thomas Gates and others, all the lands in America from the latitude of 34 degrees to 45, all which was then called Virginia. But by this charter two companies were constituted. One called the *London Company*, and to this were assigned all the lands between 34 and 41 degrees of latitude, extending inland one hundred miles from the sea coast, with all the islands within one hundred miles of the main land. To the other, called the *Plymouth company*, were assigned the lands between 38 and 45 degrees of latitude, extending one hundred miles into the main land, with all the islands within one hundred miles. The first tract was called *South Virginia* and the other *North Virginia*.

Of the second Charter to the London Company. By charter dated May 23, 1609. King James incorporated the London company with full powers of govern-

ment in America. A council was appointed resident in England, with powers to appoint the governor and other officers of the Virginia colony. By this charter, the boundaries of Virginia were enlarged; the grant extending from Point Comfort on the north two hundred miles and on the south two hundred miles along the sea coast, and westward and north westward into the main land throughout from sea to sea, with the islands within a hundred miles of the coast.

Of the Settlement of Virginia. Under the authority of the first patent, the London company sent Capt. Newport to Virginia at the close of the year 1606, with a company of adventurers, Mr. Wingfield being their President. As the usual course from England to America, at that time, was by the West Indies, Newport did not arrive till the end of April 1607. Entering the bay of Chesapeake, he gave name to Cape Henry, sailed into the Powhattan or James River, and began a plantation, called Jamestown, in which he left 104 persons and returned to England. The next year he carried 120 persons to join the colony, with supplies of provisions.

Of the Voyage of Sir George Somers. In 1609, Sir George Somers and Sir Thomas Gates sailed for Virginia, with a number of ships and five hundred adventurers, consisting of men, women and children. Before they arrived they were overtaken with a tremendous tempest and obliged to run one of their ships ashore on the island to which the name of *Somers* was at first given, but which is now called *Bermuda*. The island was uninhabited, but with such materials as they had saved from their ship, or found on the spot, they built a small pinnace or two, and after several months residence, on Bermuda, sailed to Virginia. Finding the colony reduced by sickness and want, they resolved to abandon the country and actually sailed for England. But the next day, meeting Lord Delaware with fresh supplies, they all returned, and prosecuted the planting of the country. In 1611, Sir Thomas Dale arriv-

ed with 300 additional settlers, and the colony was established.

Of the third Virginia Charter. A third charter was obtained by the London company, dated March 12, 1612. The chief object of this, seems to have been to obtain an enlargement and an alteration of the powers of the company ; as the first governors of the colony found many of the settlers disobedient and refractory ; and also to extend the limits of the grant so as to comprehend the island of Bermuda, which, by the shipwreck of Sir George Somers, had been explored, and was deemed an object of magnitude to the company, but did not fall within their patent. In the third charter, the jurisdiction of the company was extended over all islands within three hundred leagues of the boundary of the first patent on the ocean, and between 30 and 41 degrees of latitude.—This included Bermuda.

Of the Attempt to Settle North Virginia or New England. In 1606 the Plymouth company sent Capt. Challons to make further discoveries and begin a plantation in America ; but steering southward he was taken by a Spanish fleet and carried to Spain. A ship under Capt. Prinn, arrived, explored the rivers and bays, but not finding Challons, returned. The next year, Captain Popham, with two ships, and one hundred adventurers, came to America, and began a plantation on Monhegan, an island near the mouth of Sagadahoc, now called Kennebec, in the month of August. But the following winter proving to be unusually severe, President Popham dying, and a magazine of their provisions being burnt, the settlement was broke up, and the survivors returned to England.

Of the Voyages of Hudson. Henry Hudson, an Englishman, probably in the service of the Dutch, sailed in quest of a North West Passage, in 1607, and penetrated as far north as 80 degrees of latitude. From him were named the strait and great bay on the north.

of Labrador. He made a second voyage the next year, to the same region, without success. In this voyage, it is supposed he sailed along the coast southward, discovered and gave name to the river which washes New York and Albany.

Of the settlement of New York. Hudson was in the service of the Dutch East India company, or sold his claims to that company, which obtained a patent for an exclusive trade on the river Hudson. In pursuance of which, a number of trading adventurers built a fort at Albany, in 1612 or 13 and in 1614, on the island Manhattan, now New York. The country was called New Netherlands—the settlement on Manhattan was named New Amsterdam, which names they retained, till the conquest of the country by the English in 1664. By charter dated June 3, 1621, an exclusive right to trade to America was vested, by the States General, in the West India company, and the settlement on Manhattan was prosecuted with success.

Of Newfoundland. An attempt was made to settle the large but barren island, Newfoundland, under a grant of king James to the Earl of Northampton and others, dated April 27, 1610. A small party began a plantation in the same year; but the island is not yet populous; the climate being cold and the soil not fruitful. The island is principally valued as a shelter for the fishermen, and a station for drying cod fish, which are taken in vast quantities on its banks.

Of the Settlement of Bermuda. The London company having obtained a grant of Bermuda, they sold the property of it to one hundred and twenty of their company, who obtained a charter in 1612, and sent a colony of sixty persons there, the same year, under the government of Richard Moor, calling the islands after Sir George Somers. In the course of the following year, five ships were sent with near five hundred additional adventurers, and the colony was established. This cluster of islands had been discovered almost one

hundred years before, by one Bermuda, a Spaniard; and they still bear his name, in common language.

Of the Name of New England. Capt. John Smith, a famous adventurer, sailed with two ships, to the coast of America, in 1614; and while his men were employed in fishing, he ranged along the coast from Monhegan to Cape Cod. He left one ship, and went to England in the other; where he formed and published a chart of the coast, which he presented to Prince Charles, who gave the country the name of *New England*. Capt. Hunt, whom he left with the other ship, treacherously took twenty of the natives, in his ship, and carried them to Malaga where he sold them for slaves. This provoked the Indians to such a degree as to render it difficult and dangerous to trade with them; and the good effects of a voyage the same year, made by Capt. Harley to Martha's Vinyard, were prevented by the opposition of the Indians, who manned a great number of Canoes, attacked and wounded the master and many of the crew.

Of several Voyages to America. The brave Capt. Smith, attempting to sail to America in 1615, to begin a settlement, lost his masts in a gale, and put back to Plymouth—Embarking in another vessel immediately, he was taken by French ships of war and carried to France. In 1616 it appears that he was in England; for he published his account and his map of New England. In this latter year, Capt. Baffin renewed the attempt to find a north west passage to China, explored Hudson's Bay, entered the Bay called by his name, and ascended to the 78th degree of latitude. At this time the fisheries on the coast were prosecuted with great numbers of ships and great success. In 1619, Capt. Denner passed thro Long Island Sound; and he was probably the first European who explored the coast of Connecticut.

Of the Settlement of New England. The first settlers in New England were puritans or dissenters from the church of England, who, being greatly persecuted

during the reign of James the first, fled from England to enjoy in peace their religious principles and worship. Mr. Robinson and his congregation first left the north of England, and took up their abode in Amsterdam, in 1607 and 1608. But on account of some differences with another congregation under Mr. Smith, they removed in about a year to Leyden, where they lived in harmony, till they removed to America. These adventurers attempted to procure a patent under the Virginia Company; but they found it very difficult, on account of the odiousness of their principles. They finally obtained one in the name of John Wincob, but, he failing to remove to America, it was of no use, and they resolved to remove without one.

Of the Voyage of the first Settlers. The first colony consisting of a part only of Mr. Robinson's congregation, sailed from Holland in July 1620, and put into Southampton in England, where a larger ship was prepared. They left that port in August, but the ship being leaky, they put into Dartmouth, from whence they sailed in two ships on the 21st of the same month. After proceeding a hundred leagues, they were compelled to return to Plymouth; one ship being leaky was condemned, and the other proceeded on her voyage. This ship left England, Sept. 6th, and arrived in November, at Cape Cod: The company intended to bear away to Hudson's River, but were terrified with the breakers on the shoals, and changing their course, put into harbor.

Of the Progress of the Settlers. This colony did not arrive till the 11th of November O. S. when the weather was cold, and then they had not determined on a spot for their settlements. Parties were dispatched to explore the country, which, after incredible sufferings from cold, snow and rain, found a harbor. Here the people landed on the 20th of December 1620, after prayers and thanks to heaven, for safety and guidance, and immediately began to erect buildings, giving to the plantation the name of Plymouth, after the

name of the town which they last left in England. Before they landed, they signed articles by which they formed themselves into a body politic. By means of diseases occasioned by colds and severe sufferings, the settlers, who were one hundred and one souls, lost half their number, in about five months.

Of the first cultivation of Maiz or Indian Corn. On the opening of spring, the settlers sowed barley, and pease which produced an indifferent crop. Indian Corn was the grain which furnished them with a great part of their subsistence, but as they never before saw it, Squanto, an Indian who had been carried to Spain by Capt. Hunt, but had returned, assisted them in planting and dressing it. This was the beginning of the cultivation of a grain which is the staple production of New England.

Of the Patent to the Duke of Lenox, and others. In the very month, when the first settlers arrived in America, King James granted a patent to the Duke of Lenox and others, dated November 3, 1620, incorporating them with the stile of the "Council established at Plymouth, in the county of Devon, for the planting and governing of New England in America," with full powers to purchase and hold lands, appoint officers and make laws. The limits of the grant to them were, "from 40 to 48 degrees of latitude, throughout the main lands from sea to sea," with the islands adjoining, provided they were not occupied by any other Christian prince or state, and on condition of paying to the crown a fifth of the gold and silver ore they should find and obtain. By this patent, the territory granted, which had been before called *North Virginia*, received the name of *New England* from royal authority, and from this were derived all the subsequent grants of the several parts of the territory.

Of the Grants to John Mason and Ferdinando Gorges. By a deed, dated March 9, 1621, the Council of Plymouth granted to John Mason, the lands from Naumkeag, now Salem, to the Merrimac, extending inland

to the heads of those rivers—the lands on which are now built Beverly, Ipswich and Newbury Port. This district was called *Mariana*. By another grant, dated August 10, 1622, the council assigned to Gorges and Mason jointly all the lands between the Merrimac and Sagadahoc, extending westward to the Rivers of Canada, which district was called *Laconia*. Within this grant lies the present state of New Hampshire.

Of the Settlement of New Hampshire. Under the grants to Gorges and Mason, a number of persons arrived in the river Piscataway in 1623 and began two settlements—one at the mouth, at a place called the little harbor—the other at the place now called Dover. These settlements were enlarged at first very slowly, but they were the small beginnings of the present state of New Hampshire.

Of the Grant of Nova Scotia. William Alexander, a Scots gentleman, obtained from king James, a grant dated September 10, 1621, of the lands extending from Cape Sable to St. Mary's Bay, thence to the source of the river St. Croix, thence northerly to the nearest river or harbor on the St. Lawrence or Iroquois, thence along the bank of that river to a harbor called Gaspe, thence easterly to the north point of Cape Breton, and thence to Cape Sable. To this district was then given the present name *Nova Scotia*, which signifies New Scotland. This district was a part of the lands granted by the French king to de Monts, in 1603, and which has since been the subject of contest between Great Britain and France. This grant was confirmed to Alexander by king Charles, the first, by patent dated July 12, 1625.

Of a Grant to Robert Gorges. Robert Gorges, the son of Ferdinand, obtained a grant from the council of Plymouth, dated Dec. 30, 1622, of a tract of land on the north side of the bay of Massachusetts, ten miles in breadth and extending thirty miles into the land. Under this grant, he attempted a settlement, the next year, at the place now called Weymouth; the spot,

which a company of adventurers, under one Weston, had occupied the year before and abandoned. But the settlers were not contented with the situation or with the country—and soon forsaking the place, the intention of Gorges was frustrated. In 1625, Capt. Wollaston, with a small company, arrived and planted themselves at Mount Wollaston, now Quincy. With them was one Morton, a lawyer, who gave the settlers great trouble, and who was finally seized by the Plymouth people and sent a prisoner to England.

Of the Charter of Massachusetts. By deed bearing date March 19, 1628, the Plymouth company granted to Sir Henry Rosewell and others, all the lands lying between a line three miles north of Merrimac River, and a line three miles south of every part of Charles River, and of the bay of Massachusetts, and extending with the same breadth, throughout the main lands from the Atlantic to the South Sea. A charter dated March 4, 1629 was obtained from the crown of England, by which that grant was confirmed, and the company erected into a corporation, with ample powers of government. Matthew Cradock was appointed the first governor, and sworn March 18, 1629. Under this charter was Massachusetts settled.

Of the Settlements in Salem and Charlestown. In the year 1628, a company of adventurers under Mr. John Endicot, arrived at Naumkeag, the Indian name of a river, and began a plantation, which was called *Salem*. A small settlement under Mr. Oldham and Mr. Conant had been begun at Nantasket in 1624; and the people removed to Cape Ann, in the following year. But all these small settlements were brought under the government of the Salem colony.

In 1630, a considerable fleet arrived at Salem, with fifteen hundred passengers, and some of the most respectable of the primitive families in New England, Governor Winthrop, Governor Dudley, Sir Richard Saltonstall and many others. Not liking that place as a capital town, they removed and planted themselves at Charlestown.

Of the Progress of the Settlements to the Building of Boston. Unfortunately many of the passengers were taken sick on the voyage, and a malignant fever, in one of the ships in 1629, was communicated to the settlers on shore, which occasioned an alarming mortality. This and other discouragements induced more than one hundred of the people to return, by the first ships, to England. But most of them persevered, and conceiving the Peninsula, on the other side of the river, to be a safe and convenient place for their principal town, they removed before winter, began the town and named it BOSTON, after the town of that name in England. Sir Richard Saltonstall's company sat down at Watertown—Mr. Warham and his people planted Dorchester.

Of the Plymouth Patent. In January 1630, the council for planting New England, granted to Governor Bradford of Plymouth, and his associates, a patent of a tract of land, extending from a rivulet called Cohasset to Narraganset River and westward to a country called Paconokit; and a tract of fifteen miles on each side of the river Kennebec, with full powers of colonial government. The settlement at Plymouth constituted a colony distinct from Massachusetts, until the year 1692, when it was annexed to Massachusetts.

Of Connecticut. The settlers at Manhattan and in Massachusetts, very soon obtained a knowledge of the fertility of the lands on the river Connecticut, and laid claim to the territory. The Plymouth people formed a design of beginning a plantation there, and applied to the Massachusetts settlers to join them in 1633. The governor and council of Massachusetts declined, as they were not certain the territory fell within their patent. In the summer of 1633, a bark was sent to Manhattan by the Governor of Massachusetts, for the purpose of signifying to the Dutch Governor, Van Twilly, that the English colonies claimed Connecticut by virtue of their charter: To which the Dutch Governor replied, in a polite letter, that the Dutch company claimed it

also.—Both parties desired the other to forbear making any plantation on that river.

Of the first Settlements on the Connecticut. In October 1633, a small vessel was sent by the Plymouth colony, to erect a trading house on the bank of the Connecticut. When passing up the river, the men found the Dutch had arrived there before them, and had built a fort which they called Good Hope on the west bank, near the mouth of a small river, within the present town of Hartford. The Dutch forbid the men to proceed, threatening to fire on them; but the Plymouth men, disregarding the threat, advanced a few miles further, and erected a trading house within the present town of Windsor. The Dutch sent to Holland for a commission to dispossess them, and the next year, a party attempted it; but after some menaces, they departed without committing any violence.

Of the Settlement of Wethersfield. In June 1635, a bark of forty tons and twenty servants, belonging to Sir Richard Saltonstall, arrived at Boston from England; being sent to begin a plantation on the Connecticut. These, with a few adventurers from Watertown, repaired to Connecticut and began a settlement at Pequaug which they called *Wethersfield*. This was probably in July, for the ancient laws of the colony declare Wethersfield to be the oldest town on the river. The bark, after landing the people, returned, and on her passage to England, was cast away on the isle of Sable, but the seamen were saved.

Of the Settlement of Windsor. In the summer of 1635, the people of Dorchester began a plantation near the Plymouth Trading House. This was in the latter part of July or beginning of August. The Plymouth people were much offended, and complained of this as an injury; for they considered their prior possession as giving them a fair claim to the lands, and they had also purchased them of the Indians. The controversy however was adjusted by making satisfaction to the

Plymouth men, or the latter relinquished their claims ; and the Dorchester people, continuing on the lands, began the town of Windsor.

Of the Progress of Settlements on the Connecticut. In October 1635, the Dorchester people, to the number of sixty, with their cows and swine, travelled by land to the Connecticut, to join their brethren at Windsor. It being late in the season, and no fodder being provided, most of the cattle died in the ensuing winter. A part of them remained on the east side of the river and lived by browsing on the shrubs. Two shallops laden with goods and provisions, were dispatched by water, but were cast away at the Gurnet near Plymouth, and all the people perished. The people of Connecticut waited for their provisions, till famine threatened them ; and then went down the river in hopes of meeting the expected supplies. Being disappointed, they embarked on board of a vessel at the mouth of the river, and after great distress, arrived at Boston, having lost some of their number by hunger. Those who wintered in Connecticut were obliged to eat acorns, malt and grains. The value of the cattle which died was two thousand pounds sterling.

Of the Settlement of Hartford. The congregation at Newtown, now Cambridge, with Mr. Hooker their pastor, left that place early in summer 1636, and travelled by land to Connecticut, driving one hundred and sixty cattle, thro a pathless wilderness, without shelter, or bridges over rivers. They began a plantation and called it Newtown, which name was afterward exchanged for Hartford. The Indian name was Sukeeg. The towns of Wethersfield, Windsor and Hartford being thus settled, associated and chose magistrates to regulate their common concerns. In 1639 they formed a regular constitution and chose Mr. Haynes their first governor.

Of Saybrook. The Earl of Warwick, one of the Plymouth company, had granted to Lord Say and Seal, and others, a patent, dated March 19th, 1631, of the

territory in New England, extending westward of the river Narraganset forty leagues, in a strait line, near the sea shore, and all the lands of and within that breadth to the South Sea. In October 1635, John Winthrop, the son of the governor of Massachusetts, arrived at Boston, with a commission from Lord Say and others, to erect a fort at the mouth of the Connecticut, to secure the river and territory from the Dutch. His commission constituted him governor of Connecticut for one year. This patent interfered with the plantations already begun on the Connecticut; but it was agreed by the government of Massachusetts and Mr. Winthrop, that the settlers of three towns on the Connecticut, should either leave the place upon full satisfaction, or afford ample room for Mr. Winthrop and his associates.

Of the Settlement of Saybrook. In November 1635, Mr. Winthrop sent two small vessels, with an engineer, workmen and materials to build a fort at the mouth of the Connecticut. The place they selected was on the west bank of the river, and they gave the settlement the name of Saybrook, combining the titles of two of the patentees, Lords Say and Brook. In July 1639, George Fenwick, agent of the patentees, arrived from England, with his family, at Boston, and repaired to Saybrook to prosecute the plantation.

Of the Settlement of New Haven. In July 1637 arrived at Boston, Mr. Davenport, Mr. Eaton and a number of adventurers. After exploring the country westward of Saybrook, they built a hut at a place called Quinnipiac, where a few persons remained during the winter. In April 1638, Mr. Davenport and his company arrived from Boston and began a plantation, which they called New Haven. They immediately devoted a day to religious exercises and entered into a covenant to make the rules of scripture the basis of their civil and religious government. In June 1639, the planters assembled and formed a constitution of government; and in October following, an election of

officers was held, in which Mr. Eaton was chosen governor. They purchased the lands of the sachem of the country, and engaged to defend him and his people from the Pequots and Mohawks.

Of the Settlement of Milford and Guilford. In February 1639, a number of persons, mostly from Wethersfield, purchased of the Indians, Wopowage, and began a settlement which they called *Milford*, ten miles west of New Haven. In September of the same year, another company purchased Menunkatuc, and began a plantation, which they called *Guilford*, sixteen miles east of New Haven. The chief men were chosen magistrates and judges to preserve order and distribute justice, until a constitution of government should be framed and established.

Of the Settlement of Fairfield and Stratford. Mr. Ludlow of Windsor, who had traversed the lands west of Quinnipiac, in pursuit of the Pequots in 1637, was so well pleased with their fertility, that he and a few friends purchased a large tract at Unquowa, and began a settlement in 1639, called *Fairfield*. This was augmented by adventurers from Watertown and Concord in Massachusetts. In the same year, a company of men from England and Massachusetts, purchased Cupheeg and Poquonnuc, and began the town of *Stratford*.

Of the Delaware Purchase and Stanford. In 1640, New Haven made a purchase of Rippowams; and of tracts of land on both sides of Delaware bay, on which they erected trading houses, and sent about fifty families to begin a plantation, which in two years was broke up by mortal diseases, and the attacks of the Swedes. They also purchased on Long Island the land now called *Southold*. In the same year, a violent controversy divided the church in Wethersfield, and one part purchased of New Haven the lands at Rippowams and began the town of *Stanford*.

Of the Purchase of Saybrook. In the year 1640, four distinct colonies were settled and their governments

formed, viz. Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut and New Haven. The plantation at Saybrook remained independent of the government of these colonies, under the direction of Mr. Fenwick. But in December 1644, Mr. Fenwick, as agent for the patentees, sold the fort at Saybrook and its appurtenances, to the Connecticut colony ; and engaged to convey all the lands between the fort and Narraganset river, if they should come into his power. In consideration of these grants, Connecticut agreed to pay to Mr. Fenwick, certain fixed duties on articles exported from the river, for ten years. But these duties, in 1646, were commuted for the sum or value of one hundred and eighty pounds, in certain articles of produce, to be paid annually for ten years.

Of the Union of the Colonies. Altho by a mortal pestilence which spread among the natives, about the year 1617 and 18, the tribes between the Narraganset and Penobscot, had been greatly reduced and weakened, and the Pequot tribe had been destroyed by the Connecticut settlers in 1637 ; yet the country contained numerous tribes, and sufficient to exterminate the infant settlements, if they chose to unite and take up the hatchet. The colonies were also exposed to the Dutch. For the greater security therefore the four colonies united in 1643, in articles of confederation, by which they agreed to succor, aid and support each other, and to maintain the independence of each. Annual meetings of their commissioners were to be held at Boston, Hartford, New Haven and Plymouth in rotation. The charges of wars for the common defense were to be assessed on each colony, according to the number of males between sixteen years old and sixty. Massachusetts was to furnish one hundred foldiers and each of the others forty five ; or in that proportion. This union was of great utility to the infant settlements, for thirty five years.

Of the Charter and Union of Connecticut and New

Haven. In the war between the commonwealth of England, under Cromwell and the Dutch, in 1653, Capt. Underhill, by virtue of a commission from England, took possession of the Dutch property in Hartford, and the lands were sold. After the restoration of king Charles II, the Connecticut planters, by John Winthrop, their agent, petitioned for a charter, which was granted and dated April 14, 1662. The territory granted and confirmed to them was bounded by Narraganset Bay on the east, by Massachusetts on the north, on the south, by the sea, and extended to the south sea on the west. By this charter the settlers were incorporated into a body politic, with ample powers of government. But the charter comprehended the New Haven colony and was obtained without their consent; which occasioned great uneasiness and discontent among the New Haven planters, who remonstrated against being brought under the jurisdiction of Connecticut. But in December 1664, the general court of New Haven consented to the union, and thus was formed the late colony, now state of Connecticut—a union which, by its happy consequences, has proved how idle were the fears of the people about a consolidation.

Of the Union of Plymouth with Massachusetts. Massachusetts and Plymouth continued to be distinct colonies, until long after the restoration of king Charles. The charter of Massachusetts was vacated by legal process in England, in the year 1685; and the colony subjected to the arbitrary government of Sir Edmund Andros, until the revolution in favor of king William, when he was seized and sent to England, and the colony resumed their old charter government. In 1692, a new charter was obtained, confirming the privileges of the colony, and comprehending the colony of Plymouth in the same government. Since that time Plymouth has been a county of the colony, now state, of Massachusetts.

Of the Settlement of Providence. A clergyman, named

Roger Williams, who arrived with the colony of Massachusetts in 1630, became disgusted and removed to Plymouth, where he assisted the Rev. Mr. Smith, for two years. In consequence of some discontent, he left that town and went to Salem, where he was chosen to succeed Mr. Shelton. But he was charged by the magistrates with holding dangerous doctrines, his settlement was opposed and he was banished. He first went to Seekonk, now Rehoboth, and purchased a tract of land of the sachem; but as this was within the jurisdiction of Plymouth, he was desired to remove. Accordingly, in the spring of 1635, he entered into an agreement with Miantonomy and Canonius, sachems of the Narragansets, fixed his residence at Mooshaswick, and called the place *Providence*.

Of the Settlement of Newport. In consequence of religious dissensions, one John Clark, and a few friends, left Boston by water, sailed round Cape Cod, and travelled to Providence, where they were entertained by Mr. Williams. Upon application to the Plymouth people, they were advised to settle at Aquetneck, now Rhode Island. In consequence, they formed an agreement among themselves for their government, purchased or obtained a grant of that island from the natives, dated March 24, 1638, and began a settlement, on the north east end, at Pocasset, opposite to the present town of Tiverton. In the following year, 1639, a plantation was begun, on the westerly side of the island, and called *Newport*. Patuxet was settled by William Arnold.

Of the progress of Settlements in the Neighborhood. In 1643, Shawmet was purchased by one Gorton and ten associates. Gorton had been banished from Rhode Island, in 1640; he went to Patuxet, was summoned before the court of Massachusetts, and refusing submission, was taken a prisoner; tried, confined all winter and then banished. Having obtained a grant of Shawmet, he went to England, obtained a confirmation of his grant, and settled the town now called Warwick. Westerly was made a township in 1669. *Kingston*

1674—East Greenwich in 1677, and Conanicut in 1678 by the name of James Town.

Of the Government of Providence. The settlers in these plantations, were first governed by a magistrate and assistants, but in 1640, they gave the title of Governor to the Chief Magistrate, and formed an imperfect constitution. In 1643, Mr. Williams went to England and obtained a charter, dated March 14th, 1644, from the commissioners of plantations, under which Rhode Island and Providence Plantations formed a body of laws. In 1651, an attempt was made to alter this constitution, but Williams and Clark were sent to England and prevented it. After the restoration of king Charles II, a new charter was obtained from the Crown, dated July 8th, 1663, by which the people of the colony were incorporated, with ample powers of government, and which still remains the basis of their government.

Of the Settlement of Maine. The shore of that part of America, extending from the river Pascataway, to the Bay of Fundy, had been discovered by many of the first voyagers, both English and French. The grant of the French king to de Monts in 1603, covered the lands from the fortieth to the forty sixth degree of latitude, and of course included Maine; but the French settlements were north and east of this District. Sir John Popham and his company attempted a settlement on an island at the mouth of the Kennebec, in 1607—8, but abandoned the country. The Plymouth Patent also in 1630 contained a grant of a tract of land on the Cobisecontee river, and fifteen miles on each side of the Kennebec, under which a settlement was made for the purposes of trade. A dispute arising between the Plymouth men and some persons belonging to Pascataway, about the right to trade at that place, two men were killed; but the controversy was amicably settled. Under these grants however, some small settlements were made, before any government was established in Maine.

Of the Grant of Maine to Sir Ferdinando Gorges. By a royal patent, dated April 3, 1639, Gorges obtained a grant of all the lands between the Pascataway and Newichawanoc on the south and west and Sagadahoc and Kennebec on the east, extending one hundred and twenty miles north westward into the country, with the islands adjacent, and Capawas, now Martha's Vineyard. By this Charter, the territory received the title of the "Province of Maine," by which it was known till the American Revolution. It is now called the "District of Maine." Gorges neglected this grant, and during the civil wars in England, Massachusetts extended her claim over a part of the district. Gorges died and his grandson sold the property to the Colony of Massachusetts for fourteen hundred pounds sterling. The new Charter of 1692 placed Maine under the Massachusetts government, and it now forms a part of that state.

Of the Grant and Settlement of Maryland. By Charter, dated June 20, 1632, Charles the first granted to Cecilius Calvert, Baron of Baltimore, in Ireland, the lands in America, between Watkins' point in the Chesapeake, and a line from that point to the ocean, on the south; and a line under the fortieth degree of latitude on the Delaware, on the north; which north line was extended to the highest source of the Patomac, and thence by that river to its mouth, and across the bay to Watkins' point—to be held by him and his heirs in fee simple. This tract was named Maryland, and settled at first by Roman Catholics from Ireland.

Of the Progress of Maryland. The government of Maryland continued in the family of Lord Baltimore, until James the II. abdicated the throne, when the Parliament assumed the government. In 1692 the protestant religion was established by law. In 1716 the government was restored to the proprietary, and continued in his family, till the revolution; when his absence was considered as a forfeiture of his rights to the soil and jurisdiction; a convention was called, a consti-

tution formed, and the country erected into an independent state. In 1785, Mr. Harford, the heir of Lord Baltimore, petitioned the legislature for his estate, but without success.

Of the first Settlements on the Delaware. It is difficult to ascertain the precise date of the first plantations on the Delaware. The Dutch and Swedes began settlements there, within a few years after the Dutch West India Company obtained a grant of New Netherlands, and between 1630 and 1637. Both claimed the territory, and a controversy arose between the Dutch governor of New Netherlands, and the Swedish settlers, which subsisted many years. In 1641, a number of families from New Haven began a plantation on that river; but many of them died, the next summer by sickness, and the rest were afterwards driven away by the Dutch and Swedes, who maintained their ground, and the descendants of the latter still live in Pennsylvania.

Of the State of Delaware. The plantations on the Delaware fell within the patent to the Duke of York in 1664; or at least were considered as within its limits. After the grant of Pennsylvania to William Penn in 1681, the Duke of York by deeds dated August 21st and 24th, 1682, granted and released to William Penn all his claims to the lands within William Penn's Patent, and the lands about New Castle, within a circle of twelve miles, and south to the Hoar Kills. By an act of union and an act of settlement between Mr. Penn and the inhabitants, dated December 6, 1682, the counties, on the Delaware, were annexed to the province of Pennsylvania; they however had a separate Assembly, in which the Governor of Pennsylvania presided. At the late revolution, the three counties erected a free independent state, by the name of *Delaware*, and formed a constitution.

Of the Grant to the Duke of York. After the English conquered New Netherlands from the Dutch in 1664, King Charles the second, by patent dated the

twelfth day of March, 1664, granted to his brother James, Duke of York, a tract of land in America, beginning at Nova Scotia and extending along the coast to Pemaquid and to the head of that river; thence to the Kennebec and northward to the river of Canada; also Long Island and Hudson's River, and all the lands from the west side of Connecticut River to the east side of Delaware Bay, with Martha's Vinyard and Nantucket. To this territory the Duke gave the name of New York. The boundaries are hardly to be understood; but this grant of lands before granted to others on the Connecticut, occasioned many and warm controversies between the colonies of New York, Connecticut, New Hampshire and Vermont, some of which lasted for more than a century.

Of the Grant of New Jersey. The Duke of York, by deed of release, dated June 24th, 1664, sold and confirmed to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, their heirs and assigns, all that tract of land to the westward of Long Island and Manhattan, between the ocean and the Hudson on the east and the Delaware on the west, from Cape May to the north branch of the Delaware in forty one degrees and forty minutes of latitude, by the name of New Cesaria or *New Jersey*. Under this grant settlements were soon begun, and Phillip Carteret was appointed the first governor.

Of the Progress of New Jersey. The proprietors of New Jersey made grants of land, while their shares were undivided; but by deed quintipartite, dated July 1, 1676, the proprietors divided this tract of land—Sir George Carteret taking the eastern half, and one Byllinge and others, the purchasers under Lord Berkeley, taking the other half. The dividing line was agreed to be a strait line from a point on the east side of Little Egg Harbor, to the northern most branch of the Delaware. This line was not run for many years, and thence arose controversies and riots between the claimants under different proprietors; thence also the distinction between East and West Jersey. These

disputes lasted till the late revolution, when New Jersey became an independent state; and were not closed, till after the peace of 1783.

Of the Charter of Carolina. In the year 1663, the Earl of Clarendon and seven others obtained from Charles the second, a patent of the lands in America lying between the thirty first and thirty sixth degrees of north latitude. Two years after, this grant was confirmed and the limits extended from the twenty ninth degree to thirty six and a half; and between these parallels, from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. Of this tract of land, the grantees were constituted absolute lords and proprietors.—For the government of the country, they procured a form of constitution to be drawn up by the celebrated Locke, which appeared well on paper, but was not practicable nor convenient, and was therefore not established.

Of the Settlement of Carolina. In 1664, the proprietors of Carolina sent Capt. Sayle to explore the coast; who, being driven by a storm among the Bahamas, examined the island of Providence; then sailed along the American coast, and made a favorable report of the country. In consequence of his information, the proprietors solicited and obtained a patent of all the islands between the twenty second and twenty seventh degrees of north latitude, which included the Bahamas. In 1670, Capt. Sayle, with a small company, arrived at Port Royal, and began a settlement; but he soon fell a victim to disease. In 1671, the settlers removed to the banks of Ashley river, and begun what has been called Old Charlestown. In 1680, they begun the present city of Charlestown. The first settlers had to struggle with extreme hardships and distress, from want, from the savages and from the diseases incident to the climate.

Of the Progress of Carolina. The new settlement was augmented, about the year 1672 or 3, by a number of the Dutch inhabitants from New York, who left that colony, after it came into possession of the

English. These formed a settlement on the south west of Ashley river, called James Town ; but they afterward dispersed into other parts of the country.

A few years after, a considerable number of protestants in consequence of the persecutions which followed the revocation of the edict of Nantz in 1685, left France and settled in Carolina. In 1699, a tremendous hurricane brot such an inundation upon the town, that the inhabitants were obliged to seek shelter in the upper stories of their houses. A fire broke out and destroyed most of the town. The small pox raged the same year ; and finally so mortal a pestilential bilious fever, that almost half the people died. These calamities came near to break up the colony.

Of the State of Carolina. In 1728, a very hot summer was followed by a dreadful hurricane, which laid the town of Charlestown under water, damaged the wharves and houses, and dashed to pieces almost every ship in the harbor. This was followed by a pestilential bilious fever which destroyed great numbers of the inhabitants, and it was hardly possible to find people to tend the sick and bury the dead.

In this year, the proprietors of Carolina, except Lord Carteret, sold all their property to the crown of England, and surrendered the government. Until this time, the governors of Carolina had been appointed by the proprietors ; but from this period, the king appointed the governor and council, as in many other colonies. This form of government continued till the revolution, when Carolina became an independent state, and formed a constitution.

Of the Grant to William Penn. Charles the second, by charter dated March 4, 1681, granted to William Penn a tract of land in America, extending from a line twelve miles northward of Newcastle to the forty third degree of latitude, and from the Delaware westward five degrees of longitude. Under this grant, he took possession of the country, purchased the soil of the natives, introduced a colony of his friends and called the

tract *Pennsylvania*. He parcelled out his lands at moderate rents, gave free toleration to all religious sects, and thus invited a rapid settlement of the province. The property continued in his heirs until the revolution, when the legislature assumed the government and territorial rights, made a compensation to the proprietor in money, and *Pennsylvania* became an independent state.

Of the Settlement of North Carolina. The people of Virginia began the first plantations within Carolina, by gradually extending their settlements to the southward of James Town. As early as the middle of the 17th century, they had formed settlements along the Chowan river and Albemarle sound; and falling within the limits of the Carolina grant to the Earl of Clarendon and others, in 1663, the proprietors authorized Governor Berkeley to take them under his protection and government. Accordingly, one Drummond was appointed their Governor. In 1665, Sir J. Yeamans with a company from Barbadoes, formed a settlement, on Cape Fear river. These were the first settlements within North Carolina.

Of the Settlement of Georgia. In the year 1732, a number of benevolent persons in England, formed a design of beginning a plantation in America, for the purpose of furnishing means of subsistence to many needy people; and obtained an act of the crown dated June 9th, making them a corporation for carrying into effect that object. In November following, one hundred and sixteen persons embarked for America under General Oglethorpe, one of the trustees. They arrived early in 1733, at Charlestown, and with the aid of Governor Johnson, repaired to the river Savanna, on the bank of which they began the town of that name. The territory was called *Georgia*, from the name of the king.

Of the Progress of Georgia. The colony was increased by further emigrations from Scotland and Germany; but numerous difficulties attended the first settlements,

and the trustees weary with the complaints of the settlers, and not satisfied with the condition of the colony, surrendered their charter to the crown in 1752. From which time Georgia was under a royal government, the governor being appointed by the king, until the revolution, when it became an independent state.

Of the Motives of the first Settlers of America. The Spaniards who first came to America, were stimulated by the desire and expectation of finding the precious metals, gold and silver. So powerful was this passion for gold, that the first adventurers encountered every possible hardship and danger in search of it, and sacrificed millions of the wretched natives, whom they compelled to work in the mines. Very different were the motives of the settlers of New England. These were dissenters from the church of England, called *puritans*, from their rigid principles and discipline, who suffered persecution for their nonconformity, and determined to seek peace and liberty of conscience in a wilderness. A similar motive actuated the settlers of Pennsylvania, and some of the adventurers to Maryland and Carolina.

Of the Circumstances favorable to the Settlers. One of the most remarkable events, favorable to the first settlements, was the great destruction of the Indians by a pestilential disease, resembling the bilious plague, which raged in the years 1617 and 18 among all the tribes between the Narraganset and the Penobscot, and almost depopulated the country. Many villages were stripped of all their inhabitants; and in many places, our forefathers found the bones of such as had been left unburied. This mortality weakened the strength of the natives, and probably rendered the survivors less ferocious and hostile. To this may be added the destruction of the natives by the small pox in 1633.

Another favorable circumstance was, the hostility that existed between different tribes; which, in case of a war, enabled our ancestors to make use of one tribe for the extermination of another.

SECTION VII.

INDIAN WARS.

Of the Massacre in Virginia.

IN the year 1622, the settlers in Virginia lost three hundred and forty nine of their number by a sudden massacre. The Indians had, for some time before, lived on very familiar terms, with the English; but in the spring of that year, they secretly plotted to exterminate the colony. The direct occasion was this. A young Indian Chief had murdered one Morgan, an Englishman, for some toys which he was carrying to sell to the Indians. The English attempted to seize him, and he making an obstinate resistance, was killed. To revenge his death, a conspiracy was formed, and on the 22d of March, the Indians fell on the inhabitants who were unprepared and killed all they found. This compelled the people to abandon most of their plantations and retire to James Town. The consequence of this massacre was a furious and unrelenting war, in which the savages were slain without mercy.

Of the principal Indian Tribes in New England.

The settlers at Plymouth and Massachusetts had no trouble with the Indians in their neighborhood, for many years. But westward of the Narraganset Bay, lived powerful tribes, which had not been reduced by the malignant fever. These were the Narragansets who possessed the country between the river of that name and the Paucatuc, which territory is now a part of Rhode Island—The Pequots, a warlike nation, inhabiting the territory between Paucatuc and the Connecticut; now a part of Connecticut, by the names of Stonington and Groton—The Mohegans who resided on the west of the river Mohegan, and owned the land, now a part of New London and Norwich. Of these the Pequots were the most warlike, ferocious, and formidable to the other tribes, with whom they were often at war.

Of the Occasion of the Pequot War. In the year 1634, the Pequots killed Capt. Stone and all his companions, being seven in number, who were bound up the Connecticut, merely for compelling two of the nation to be their guides. In 1636, Capt. Oldham was killed at Block Island, where he went to trade. Some others were killed the same year; and in April 1637 a party of Indians went up the Connecticut in canoes, and surprizing a number of persons in Wethersfield as they were going into the field, killed nine and took two young women prisoners. These murders called upon the inhabitants to take measures for their safety, and it was determined to make war on the Pequots.

Of the Beginning and Progress of the War. The murder of Capt. Oldham induced Massachusetts to send ninety men under General Endicott to reduce the Indians on Block Island, and then to demand of the Pequots, the murderers of Capt. Stone, and a thousand fathom of wampum, by way of satisfaction, with some of their children as hostages. In October 1636, they landed on the island and the Indians fled, but their wigwams were all destroyed. The party then sailed to the Pequot country, where they could not effect their purposes, and after burning a number of huts, they returned. This expedition from Massachusetts gave offense to the settlers at Plymouth and Connecticut; who complained to the governor that it would exasperate the savages, without being of any use towards subduing them. But the continued murders of the Pequots, induced all the colonies, the next year, to unite in an expedition against them.

Of the Destruction of the Pequots. In April 1637, the Connecticut people sent letters to the government of Massachusetts, expressing their dissatisfaction at the expedition of the former year; but urging a continuance of the war to a more decisive conclusion. Preparations accordingly were made in all the colonies.

But Connecticut was beforehand in executing the design; for early in May, Capt. Mason with ninety men from Hartford, Wethersfield and Windsor, went down the river, being joined by Capt. Underhill at Saybrook and by Uncas, sachem of the Mohegans, the enemy of the Pequots. Sailing round to the Narraganset shore, they landed, and being joined by five hundred Indians of that tribe, who wished to see the Pequots exterminated, they marched by moon light to the Pequot fort, and attacked it by surprize. Capt. Mason entered, set fire to the huts, and slew or took most of the Indians, amounting to six or seven hundred, with the loss of only two of his own men. Those who escaped, fled and took refuge in a swamp, now in Fairfield. A body of men, being joined by the troops from Massachusetts, under Capt. Stoughton, pursued them, killed some, took others and dispersed the rest—so that the tribe became extinct.

Of Philip's War. In the year 1675, Philip, sachem of the Wampanoags, who lived at Mount Hope, in the present town of Bristol, in Rhode Island, began a war the most general and destructive ever sustained by the infant colonies. It is supposed that he was induced to undertake it, by a desire of exterminating the English. The immediate cause was this—An Indian had made a discovery of his plots, for which Philip caused him to be slain. The murderers were tried and executed by the English. Philip soon commenced his hostile attacks on the English, and by his agents, drew into the war most of the tribes in New England.

Of the Progress of the War. On the 18th of July, the English forces attacked the Indians at Pocasset Neck, now Tiverton, drove them into a swamp, but were obliged to retreat with the loss of fifteen men. At the close of the month, Brookfield was burnt, except one house which was defended by the people, until they had retired. After which Deerfield was burnt. Northfield was abandoned to the savages, after a num-

ber of its inhabitants had been killed ; Capt. Beers attempting to succor the town being slain with twenty of his men. The 18th of September was a fatal day ; for Capt. Lathrop, and eighty men, the flower of Essex county, while guarding some carts which were conveying corn from Derfield to Hadley, were surprised and almost every man slain. This melancholy event was soon followed by the destruction of a considerable part of Springfield. Hadley was assaulted, but relieved by Major Treat of Connecticut.

Of the Attacks on the Narragansets. The English had endeavored to secure the friendship of the Narragansets ; and to prevent them from joining Philip, had formed a treaty with them July 15, 1675. But it was well known that they secretly aided the hostile Indians, and it was determined to reduce them by a winter expedition. For this purpose, about a thousand men under Governor Winslow, marched late in December, wading in deep snow, and attacked the fort of the enemy. The Narragansets were furnished with muskets, and made havoc with the assailants, especially among the officers who first entered the fort, most of whom were killed. Six captains and eighty men were killed ; one hundred and fifty were wounded ; and all suffered incredibly from frozen limbs and other hardships. But the success was complete ; two or three hundred of the Indians were slain, all their huts burnt, and the country ravaged.

Of the Progress of the War in 1676. About the 10th of February a party of savages burnt Lancaster, and killed or took prisoners forty of the inhabitants, among which was the family of the minister, Mr. Rowlandson. Ten days after, they attacked Medfield early in the morning and so suddenly, that, although garrisoned, they burnt nearly one half of the town, and slew many of the inhabitants. On the 26th of March, Capt. Pierce and fifty men from Plymouth were slain near Pautuxet. A great part of Marlborough was burnt on the same day, Warwick was laid in ashes on the 17th of the

same month. About forty houses and thirty barns were burnt on the 28th following in Rehoboth ; and the next day Providence was attacked and thirty houses burnt. Many other places suffered in a less degree.

Of the Success of the English. The tide of victory now began to turn. In April, Capt. Denison of Stonington collected forty seven volunteers and a party of friendly Indians, attacked the savages, took their sachem prisoner, and killed forty five without the loss of a man. This sachem called Cononchet, was the son of Miantinomo, an insolent chief of the Narragansets, and was an unrelenting enemy. He was beheaded at Stonington. Capt. Denison repeated his expeditions and killed many of the savages. The latter however continued to kill and destroy, wherever they came—and many towns suffered a loss of people and property. Capt. Wadsworth with fifty men, between Sudbury and Marlborough, was decoyed into a wood, and slain with almost all his men. But the English were very active in hunting them and finally drove Philip to his former residence at Mount Hope, where he was killed by a shot from a friendly Indian under Capt. Church on the 12th of August 1676. This fortunate event put an end to the war.

Of the Effects of this War. The colonies in New England, in the year 1675, contained from thirty five to forty thousand inhabitants, and their militia between seven and eight thousand men. Of these about six hundred fell in the war, besides many women and children. Twelve or thirteen towns were destroyed and many others lost a part of their buildings. Six hundred buildings, mostly dwelling houses, were consumed ; many cattle killed, and a heavy debt contracted. Connecticut suffered less than the other colonies, and it is remarkable that the Mohegans, from the first settlement of the colony, remained in friendship with the English, and were very useful to them in their wars. In consequence of their fidelity, they have been protected by the government ; their property has

been secured to them and is still in possession of the tribe.

Of the War in King William's Reign. On the access of William, prince of Orange, to the throne of England, a war broke out between England and France, and as Canada then belonged to France, the French instigated the Indians to hostilities, against the colonies. A body of French and Indians from Montreal, attacked Schenectady in the night of Feb. 8, 1690, when the unsuspecting inhabitants were at rest, killed sixty and took twenty prisoners. They also set fire to the houses, killed most of the cattle and horses, and marched off with the remainder of the horses laden with plunder. Those of the people who escaped fled naked towards Albany, amidst the snow, in a severe night, twenty of whom lost their limbs by the frost—The horror and sufferings of the inhabitants were beyond the powers of description.

Of the Indian Depredations in New Hampshire and Maine. The inhabitants in the eastern part of New England had suffered greatly in Philip's war; but were severely harassed and desolated from the year 1690 to 1698. The brave and venerable Major Waldron and twenty two others were taken by surprize and slain and their houses burnt. The plantation at Salmon Falls in New Hampshire, was surprized and burnt on the 18th of March 1690; thirty men were slain and the women and children were made captives. The fort and settlement at Casco were destroyed in May following. Continual murders of the people, and destruction of buildings, alarms and distresses induced the inhabitants to abandon the most defenseless parts of the country and retire to garrisoned towns. Nor did these calamities cease, till the peace between France and England in 1698, when Frontenac, the French commander in Canada, ceased to instigate the savages.

Of the War in Queen Ann's Reign. In 1702 war was proclaimed between England and France, and the American colonies were again exposed to Indian rav-

ages. Deerfield was surprized and burnt and most of the inhabitants carried captive Feb. 28, 1704. New Hampshire and especially Maine was exposed to the inroads of ferocious savages, who continued every year, to alarm or massacre the people, and burn their dwellings. The peace of Utrecht, signed March 30th, 1713, put an end to these calamities, and from that time the growing population of New England secured the inhabitants from similar distresses. Wonderful was the patience, fortitude, self denial and bravery of our ancestors, in settling, cultivating and defending this goodly heritage which we enjoy!

Of the Title of our Ancestors to the Soil of this Country. The inhabitants which our fathers found in America, tho savage tribes, which subsisted principally by hunting and fishing, were considered as the rightful owners of the soil, and treated as such. Altho the English first landed on their territory without their consent, yet they were careful to acquire a just title to the lands by fair purchase from the possessors. Our ancestors bought almost all the lands for a valuable consideration, tho generally small; and the deeds are registered among the records of the colonies. Had it not been for the French in Canada, who during the wars between England and France, instigated the savages to seek the blood and property of the English, it is probable our forefathers would have escaped most of the wars with the Indians, and their distressing consequences. The power of the French in Canada to injure the colonies, was happily destroyed by the reduction of Quebec by the forces under General Wolf in 1758, and the conquest of the whole province of Canada.

Of the Division among the different Tribes. When this country was first planted, the Indians, like other nations, were often at war among themselves. The Pequots were terrible to their neighbors; and the Mohegans and Narragansets joyfully assisted the English to exterminate them. In Philip's war, the English were assisted also by a number of friendly Indians.

The five nations west of Albany were very useful in aiding the settlers to check the incursions of the Canada tribes under French influence. The first settlements in Carolina, which might have been easily destroyed, were secured and left to thrive, by means of a bloody war between the two neighboring tribes, which nearly extinguished both. While we may rejoice at such divisions which were favorable to our ancestors, in the infant state of the colonies, yet we are to learn from them the great danger to a people from disunion. Nothing renders the conquest of a country so easy, as disunion and controversies among the inhabitants.

Of the War against the Tuscaroras. In the year 1712, the Tuscaroras, a considerable nation of Indians on the frontiers of North Carolina, with some other tribes, made war on the infant settlements in that colony and threatened it with extirpation. Their first inroad was kept so secret, that they fell on the unsuspecting planters by surprize, killing all without mercy. About Roanoke one hundred and thirty seven persons were slain in one night, among whom were most of the Germans who had then lately arrived. Governor Cravan of South Carolina, as soon as he heard of this plot, sent Col. Barnwell against the savages at the head of six hundred men, and a body of Indians of other tribes. Marching thro a hideous wilderness, Col. Barnwell surrounded the Indians in their town, slew many of them and compelled the remainder to ask for peace. Such of the Tuscaroras as escaped, abandoned their country, settled among the Five Nations; and added a sixth tribe, so that they afterwards were called the *Six Nations*.

Of the Conspiracy of the Yamasees. The southern border of South Carolina, along the Savanna, was inhabited by a numerous and powerful tribe of Indians, called Yamasees. These lived, for many years, in friendship with the Carolinians; but in 1715, instigated, it was believed, by the Spaniards of Florida, they formed a general conspiracy of all the neighboring

tribes, to destroy the English settlements. Not less than six or seven thousand warriors of the Congarees, Catawbas, Cherokees, Yamasees and other tribes were engaged in this plot. On the 15th of April, at day break, they began their horrid work of massacre and torture, and ninety persons who went to Pocotaligo, one of their towns to trade, or were in the neighboring plantations, fell victims to the first attack. The Indians approached within a few miles of Charlestown, destroying all the people who had not escaped to that town.

Of the Defeat of the Indians. At that time Charlestown could muster but twelve hundred men fit to bear arms ; but Governor Craven took vigorous measures ; laying an embargo, proclaiming martial law, and procuring an act of assembly, authorizing him to impress men, stores and amunition, he marched against the savages, and found the main body of them in their great camp, at a place called the Saltcatchers. There a sharp and bloody battle ensued, but the Carolinians repulsed the barbarians, and closely pursuing them, drove them beyond the Savanna river, where they were received by the Spaniards. The colony being thus delivered from most imminent danger, the troops returned and were received with unbounded joy. The savages remained vindictive and frequently made incursions into the English plantations, exercising their usual barbarities ; but never was Carolina again exposed to equal danger.

SECTION VIII.

POLITICAL EVENTS.

Of the political History of the Colonies.

THE charters granted to the first planters of New England, gave them ample powers of government. The freemen elected their own governors,

Councils and representatives ; by whom all laws were enacted, subject however to be abrogated by the king and council, if found repugnant to the laws of England. But the numerous emigrations to America soon alarmed the English government, and repeated orders were issued by the king to restrain such emigrations. Many jealousies and controversies also arose among those concerned in the plantations, and numerous complaints were made of the disorderly conduct of the settlers, their encroachments on other patents, and their arbitrary proceedings. The principal author of these complaints against the Massachusetts colony was John Mason. In 1634 the king and council, had been induced, by these complaints, to issue an order requiring the colony to send their charter to England. On consultation, the governor and magistrates gave answer that this could not be done, without the direction of the general court, which was to be held in September following.

Of the Surrender of the Patent of the Plymouth Company. The council of Plymouth, being dissatisfied with the proceedings of some of the company, and especially with the Massachusetts colony, which, as they alledged, had extended their jurisdiction too far, and rendered themselves independent of the company, resigned their grant to the crown by an act dated June 11, 1635. In 1636 the king issued an order of process against Massachusetts, demanding the authority by which the colony exercised the powers of government, and tho not served on any person in New England, judgment was rendered against the colony. In 1638, April 8, the king and council sent an express order that the colony should deliver up their patent. This was not obeyed, but an answer returned with a petition, stating that the process had not been served on them ; that they had settled under the authority of their patent ; and if obliged to resign it, they must remove to some other place and the country would fall into

the hands of the Dutch or French. No answer was returned, and the troubles in England prevented a further demand.

Of the Plan of a General Government. Gorges and Mason, the enemies of the Massachusetts colony, were the principal instruments in procuring the surrender of the Plymouth patent. Their plan was to procure a surrender or repeal of all the patents, and form the whole northern part of America into twelve provinces, with a general governor over the whole. This plan was nearly matured in the year 1635; but by the death of Mason, the winter following, it was frustrated. The colonies however were held in a state of alarm for many years, apprehending a loss of their patents, and a subjection to the arbitrary proceedings of the king and the high commission court.

Of the Dissolution of the Charter of Massachusetts. The controversies between the heirs of Gorges and Mason, and the Massachusetts colony, respecting the boundaries of their patents, gave rise to many complaints against the colony; and in 1676, Edward Randolph was sent from England, by the king's authority, to inquire into the state of the colonies and the grounds of complaint. The colony sent agents to England; the parties were heard; Gorges was secured in his claim to Maine, and the colony purchased his property. The claims of Mason were also adjusted. But Randolph made continual complaints against the colony for violating the laws of trade, coining money and the like. The colony appointed agents to make answer to these complaints; but without success. The king and council were prejudiced against the colony, and in 1683 issued an order demanding that the colony should answer to the charges against them. After deliberation, the representatives declined to appear and make defense. Of course in 1685, judgment was rendered against the colony, and their charter was declared to be vacated.

Of the Proceedings against the other Colonies. Similar

orders were issued against other colonies. Rhode Island assembly submitted to his majesty's pleasure, and agreed to surrender their charter which was accepted in 1684. Plymouth, expecting to be compelled to resign their patent, sent a copy of it to the king, with an address full of expressions of loyalty, and praying for the grant of a charter. No further proceedings were had against Plymouth. In July 1685, process was issued by the king and council against Connecticut. In July 1686, the assembly of the colony agreed upon an address to his majesty, in which they besought him to recal the writ against them, intreated his pardon for any faults in their government, and requested the continuance of the charter.

Of the singular Preservation of the Charter of Connecticut. When the writ of quo warranto arrived, Connecticut sent Mr. Whiting as an agent to negotiate for the preservation of their colonial charter and rights. But in vain; for the king and council had determined to vacate all the charters, and unite the colonies to the crown, under a governor of royal appointment. Sir Edmond Andros was appointed the first governor general over New England and arrived at Boston in December 1686. Soon after his arrival he wrote to Connecticut to resign their charter; but without success. In October 1687, while the assembly was in session, Governor Andros arrived at Hartford with a company of troops, and demanded a surrender of the charter. While the principal officers of government were debating with Andros, on the subject, and many people were collected, a garment was suddenly thrown over the candles, by which they were extinguished, and the charter, which lay on the table was seized by Mr. Wadsworth of Hartford, conveyed away and secreted within a large hollow tree, still standing before the house of Mr. Wyllys.

Of the subsequent Proceedings in Connecticut and Massachusetts. The charter was secured, but Governor Andros proceeded to take formal possession of the gov-

ernment of Connecticut and annexed it to Massachusetts; appointing officers civil and military, and making most flattering protestations of his good intentions. But he soon threw off the mask, and exercised arbitrary power, in the most unbounded manner. The weight of his despotism fell, with most severity, on Massachusetts and Plymouth. Happily the reign of tyranny was of short duration; for the arbitrary proceedings of his royal master, king James, had rendered him so odious in England, that he was obliged to flee from the kingdom. William, prince of Orange, who was invited to the throne of England, landed there in November 1688, and delivered the nation. Upon the first news of this revolution, the inhabitants of Boston and the neighboring towns, siezed the castle and arrested Governor Andros. This was on the 18th of April 1689. As soon as William and Mary were proclaimed king and queen, the colonies resumed their charter governments, by authority from the crown, and Andros embarked for England.

Of the Colonies after the Revolution. Connecticut obtained from the most able lawyers in England, an opinion that the colony not having surrendered the charter under seal, and no judgment being entered on record, the charter was not invalidated; the former government was therefore re-established: But the charter of Massachusetts having been vacated, the king granted a new charter, in which the right of appointing the governor and council was vested in the crown. Sir William Phips was appointed the first governor, and arrived with the new charter in May 1692. Plymouth urged for a separate charter, but could not obtain one; and it was a question for some time, whether it should be annexed to New York or to Massachusetts. Finally it was annexed to the latter.

Of another Attempt against the Colonies by Governor Dudley. Near the close of the reign of king William, Governor Dudley had formed a new design of procuring all the charters in America to be vacated and the

colonies to be united to the crown. Early in the reign of queen Ann, who ascended the throne in 1702, a bill for this purpose was actually laid before parliament. The reasons alledged for the measure were, that the colonies violated the laws of trade, defrauded the revenue, harbored pirates and the like. Sir Henry Ashurst, the agent of Connecticut, remonstrated against the measure, contradicted the charges against the colonies, and represented that such a plan would be injurious to their rights, and ruinous to their prosperity. Happily the bill was not passed, and all the attempts of Dudley were frustrated.

Of the Controversies of the New England Colonies with the Dutch. In a few years after the English came to America, a contest arose between them and the Dutch at Manhattan, respecting the lands on the Connecticut. Both parties were pleased with the fertility of the lands; both claimed the soil and both intended to gain possession of it. But the Dutch had purchased a few acres of land and planted a fort on it in 1633, before the English had attempted a plantation. The Plymouth men however arrived and built a trading house in a week or two after the Dutch had got possession. Notwithstanding the enmity between the English and Dutch, the latter were suffered to keep possession, for more than twenty years, when a war breaking out, the Dutch fort was taken, and the lands confiscated, in 1654.

Of the Disputes relating to Long Island and Delaware. About the year 1640, some of the Connecticut and New Haven planters, purchased large tracts of land on Long Island, and began settlements. The New Haven colony also made settlements on the Delaware. The Dutch, wishing to monopolize the trade, determined to restrain the English from extending their settlements, and in 1642 invaded and broke up the plantations on Long Island and the Delaware. The English complained also that the Dutch sold arms and am-

union to the Indians—and for many years mutual accusations passed between the parties. In 1650, Mr. Stuyvesant, the Dutch governor went to Hartford, being invited to an amicable agreement with the commissioners of the colonies. He there made claim to the lands on the west of the Connecticut by grant and by purchase from the natives and demanded a surrender of them. The commissioners replied and manifested their title by charter, purchase and possession.

Of the Result of the Conference. After much altercation, the parties agreed to submit their claims and differences to arbitrators, who, on the 19th of Sept. 1650, came to the following determination. That as most of the complaints and subjects of dispute arose under the preceding governor of Manhattan, Mr. Kieft, they would not come to a full conclusion, until Mr. Stuyvesant had made a representation of the facts to the company in Holland under whom he acted. With respect to the claims of New Haven and the Dutch to the land on the Delaware, then called South River, they declined a decision for want of evidence on the part of the Dutch. But they determined that the boundary between the English and Dutch, on Long Island, should be a strait line across the island from the westernmost part of Oyster Bay; and on the main land, a line running from the west side of Greenwich Bay, northerly twenty miles into the country, provided it should not come within ten miles of the Hudson. The Dutch were permitted to hold their fort and lands in Hartford, and the remainder of the lands on both sides of the Connecticut, was adjudged to the English.

Of the subsequent Disputes with the Dutch. After this award, the New Haven people attempted again to establish themselves on the Delaware; but they were prevented by the Dutch, who arrested the messengers sent to give notice of this resolution to the governor. The New Haven people petitioned the commissioners of the United Colonies to redress their injuries and main-

tain their rights. The commissioners remonstrated to the Dutch governor, but without success. In 1653, the commissioners held an extraordinary meeting, on account of information that the Dutch had formed a plot against the English, and were instigating the Indians to commit hostilities. The evidence of such a plot convinced all the commissioners, except those of Massachusetts, who opposed a war with the Dutch. Stuyvesant denied the plot and offered to prove his innocence. But no satisfaction was given, and men were raised for an expedition against the Dutch. The next spring, in 1654, orders were received from Cromwell to treat the Dutch as enemies, and a fleet was sent with forces to act against them in America. But the defeat of the Dutch fleet under Admiral Tromp in Europe, put an end to the war, and little was done in America, except the taking of the Dutch fort at Hartford.

Of the Disputes after Connecticut obtained a Charter. After the restoration of the royal government in England, in 1660, Connecticut obtained a charter which covered the colony of New Haven and extended her limits to the South Sea. This extension of her claims westward on Long Island and in West Chester, in consequence of this charter, alarmed governor Stuyvesant, who sent agents to Connecticut in 1663, to treat with the legislature on the subject. The assembly resolved, for the sake of peace, to forbear the exercise of authority on the west end of Long Island, provided the Dutch should not molest the English plantations, which petitioned to be under the government of Connecticut, and which had been received. About the same time, the assembly authorized Thomas Pell to purchase of the Indians the land between West Chester and the Hudson, as far south as Haerlem Creek. The patent to the Duke of York of the Dutch possessions in America, granted March 12, 1664, was followed by an armament under Col. Nichols, which reduced them all to subjection to the crown of England.

and released the colonies from further apprehensions from the Dutch.

Of the Boundaries between Connecticut and New York. After Col. Nichols had subdued New Netherlands, and given it the present name, *New York*, he and his associates, appointed by the crown, met with the agents appointed by Connecticut, and on the fifth of December, 1664, determined the boundary of their respective jurisdiction to be, a line beginning on the east side of Maroneck river or creek, at the place where the salt water meets the fresh, at high water, and thence north northwest to the line of Massachusetts. They determined also the whole of Long Island to be under the jurisdiction of the Duke of York, according to his charter; so that the New England colonies lost the possession of that island.

Of the Proceedings after the War with the Dutch. In March 1672, king Charles declared war against the States of Holland, and in the following summer, a Dutch force arrived at New York and took possession of it. The inhabitants of Delaware submitted to the Dutch, but the colony of Connecticut took measures of defense, and opposed the demands of the Dutch who required the people of Long Island to submit to their government, and take an oath of allegiance to the States of Holland. The Dutch attempted to subdue the island and some of the western towns of the colony, but were repelled. In February 1674, peace took place between the powers at war; by which New York was restored to the English. To prevent all dispute, about his title, the Duke of York took a new patent of his territories in America, dated June 29, 1674, and committed the government of them to Sir Edmond Andross.

Of Andross's Proceedings towards Connecticut. Sir Edmond, by virtue of the patent to the Duke of York, claimed the land on the west side of the Connecticut, to the prejudice of the Connecticut charter, and in violation of the agreement of 1664. To enforce his

claims, he attempted in 1675 to take the fort at Saybrook; and after making a show of his force, he requested a conference, which was granted. Attempting to read his commission and the Duke's patent, Capt. Bull, who commanded the fort, forbid the reading, and directed his clerk to read the protest of Connecticut against his proceedings. At this manly conduct Sir Edmond was so much pleased that on hearing the officer's name to be *Bull*, he declared his "horns ought to be tipped with silver." Finding the colony resolute, he gave up his design and sailed to Long Island.

Of the final Settlement of the Line between Connecticut and New York. In 1683, Col. Dungan arrived at New York, in character of governor. In November, the General Court of Connecticut appointed a committee to congratulate him on his arrival, and settle the boundary between the two governments. On the 28th of November of the same year, the agents came to an agreement, that the line of partition should begin at Byram river, at a point called Lyon's point, where that river falls into the sound, and run northerly at not less than twenty miles distance from the Hudson, to the south line of Massachusetts. This agreement was confirmed by the legislature of Connecticut in May 1684, the lines were in part run and ratified February 24, 1685, by governor Dungan and governor Treat. This agreement was confirmed by king William, March 28, 1700. Further progress was made in running the lines in 1725, but the business was not completed, till May 14, 1731, when the lines were established, as they now exist. In this settlement New York ceded to Connecticut a tract of land on the sound, called Greenwich, which was settled by English people who chose to be annexed to Connecticut; and in return, Connecticut ceded to New York sixty thousand acres of much better land, called the Oblong.

Of the Line between Massachusetts and Connecticut. The south line of Massachusetts, according to charter runs west from a point three miles south of the most

southerly branch of Charles River and every part of it ; and the north line of Connecticut is the south line of Massachusetts. When Mr. Pyncheon settled Springfield, and the first plantations were made in Connecticut, in 1635, it was not known whether the territory would fall within the limits of Massachusetts or not. But Mr. Pyncheon at first considered himself as belonging to the jurisdiction of the Connecticut plantations. In 1642, Massachusetts employed two surveyors, Woodward and Saffery, to run the line between the colonies. These pretended to ascertain the south line on Charles River and then sailing round and going up the Connecticut, they attempted to fix the line there, in the same latitude. But either thro inattention or the use of bad instruments, they determined the line to fall in Windsor, many miles south of the true line.

Of the Measures taken for ascertaining the Boundary. Connecticut was dissatisfied with the determination of Woodward and Saffery, and made repeated proposals to Massachusetts for a mutual adjustment of the controversy, which were ineffectual. In 1694, a committee appointed by Connecticut, run the line and found the former survey very erroneous. In this situation, the inhabitants of Suffield and Enfield, who settled under the claims and jurisdiction of Massachusetts, continued to encroach upon Windsor and Symsbury, which excited warm animosities. In the year 1700, further attempts were made to procure an amicable settlement of the dispute ; the line was run by commissioners of both colonies, in 1702, and found to fall far north of the former line ; but Massachusetts disagreed to their report. In 1708, Connecticut appointed commissioners with full powers to run the line and establish the boundary ; and resolved that unless Massachusetts would unite to complete the business, they would apply to the crown.

Of the Settlement of the Boundary between Massachusetts and Connecticut. Massachusetts did not agree at once to the proposal of Connecticut ; but in 1713,

commissioners were appointed on the part of both colonies, who came to an agreement on the 13th of July. On running the line, it was found to fall north of Enfield, Suffield and Woodstock, which of course came within the jurisdiction of Connecticut. As an equivalent for the land which had been taken from Connecticut by encroachments, Massachusetts granted a tract of land in the western part of that colony, which, in 1716, was sold for two thousand two hundred and seventy four dollars, which sum was applied to the use of Yale College. This agreement however was not considered as conclusive and satisfactory; nor was the boundary between the two states definitively settled till May 1804.

Of Rhode Island. By the original patent of Connecticut, granted by the Earl of Warwick to Lord Say and others, dated March 19th, 1631, the eastern limit of the colony was Narraganset River. In the charter of 1662, the same river was made the eastern boundary of the colony. In March 1643, the planters at Providence and Newport obtained from the Earl of Warwick and the commissioners of plantations, a charter of incorporation, with powers of government; but the boundaries of their jurisdiction were not defined. In the following year, some of the planters applied to the commissioners of the United Colonies, to be received under the government of one of the colonies, and received for answer that if the major part of the landholders would, without reservation, submit, either Massachusetts or Plymouth might receive them.

Of the Determination of the Colonies concerning Rhode Island. At a meeting of the commissioners of the colonies held at Plymouth in Sept. 1648, an application was received from the Rhode Islanders to be received into the confederacy; but the commissioners replied, that upon perusal of the Plymouth patent, they found Rhode Island to be within that patent, which they had no right to abridge; and that great confusions and dis-

turbance existed among the inhabitants—Yet if they would acknowledge themselves within the jurisdiction of Plymouth, they would be received into the union and protected. But they never consented, and maintained a distinct civil government.

Of the Extension of the Bounds of Providence Plantations. The commissioners appointed by Charles 2d to settle disputes between the colonies, at the head of whom was Col. Nichols, determined that as the Narragansets had, in 1644, submitted to become subjects of the crown of England, their country also belonged to the crown. They ordered the purchasers to remove from the lands, and arbitrarily extended the bounds of the province to Paucatuc river. In 1661, the United Colonies remonstrated with the government of Rhode Island, against the intrusions of their people upon lands near Paucatuc and the Pequot country, which had been conquered by the joint arms of Massachusetts and Connecticut, and had been located and disposed of. Frequent disputes arose between Connecticut and Rhode Island.

Of the charter Limits of Rhode Island. In the charter granted to Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, by Charles 2d, dated July 8, 1663, the colony was bounded west on Paucatuc river, north on Massachusetts, and east by the west line of the Plymouth colony, along the east side of Seekonk river to Patucket falls. This charter included the lands to the Narraganset river, which had been included in the old patent of Connecticut in 1632, and which, the king had, the year before, confirmed by charter to Connecticut. This occasioned great uneasiness and controversies.—Rhode Island pleaded, in justification, an agreement between Mr. Winthrop and Mr. Clark in England, dated March 7th, 1663, by which Mr. Winthrop as agent for Connecticut, consented that Paucatuc should be the boundary between the colonies.

Of the Conquest of the Narragansets and final Settlement of the Boundary. In 1676, the forces of the Uni-

ted colonies subdued the Narragansets, and took possession of their country. The Rhode Islanders had not assisted in the conquest, and Connecticut, rejecting the agreement of Mr. Winthrop, as void for want of authority, determined to settle and govern the country. In consequence of these disputes, commissioners were appointed by king Charles, April 7th, 1683, to inquire into the claims of the parties. On the 20th of October they reported, that the Narraganset country of right belonged to Connecticut. This report was not confirmed by the king and the controversy continued, many years, when a spirit of conciliation induced Connecticut to appoint a committee to make an amicable settlement of the controversy. On the 12th of May 1702, the agents of the two colonies agreed and confirmed the line between them, to be Paucatuc river, from the sea to the mouth of Ashaway—thence a strait line to the south west corner of Warwick—and thence a north line to Massachusetts. This line was run in 1728 and remains the boundary between the states of Connecticut and Rhode Island.

Of the eastern Boundary between Massachusetts and Rhode Island. The colony of Rhode Island was bounded by charter on the west line of Plymouth. After Plymouth was annexed to Massachusetts in 1692, disputes arose concerning the boundary between that colony and Rhode Island, which were not finally terminated till about the year 1740, when commissioners were appointed to settle the boundary. To the surprize of Massachusetts, the line was determined to be east of Bristol, Tiverton and several other towns, which had always been considered as within Plymouth or Massachusetts, but which were now annexed to Rhode Island. Massachusetts appealed to the crown, but without effect. The line was established and now remains the boundary between the two states.

Of the Government of New Hampshire. The first plantations on the Pascataway were begun under grants to Mason and Gorges, before the date of the Massachu-

fetts charter. Other settlements were made under a purchase from the Indians. The planters, having no form or powers of government from the crown, united and formed regulations for their government, and for some time, their governor was appointed by the proprietors in England. In 1641, they formally submitted to the government of Massachusetts, and continued subject to it, until the year 1675, when the heirs of Mason and Gorges revived their claims, which had been suffered to lie dormant, and demanded their property and right of government. Upon a hearing of the parties, it was determined by the judges of England, that the towns on the Piscataway were not within the bounds of Massachusetts. Accordingly on the 18th of September 1679, a commission passed the great seal, erecting New Hampshire into a separate and royal government.

Of the Boundaries between Massachusetts and New Hampshire. For many years after this separation, a controversy subsisted between those colonies, relative to their respective boundaries. At length, in 1737, commissioners duly appointed, having heard the parties and considered their claims, made a report which was disagreeable to both. The parties appealed to the king and council, who, in 1739, decided that the line between the colonies on the south of New Hampshire, should run three miles north of the Merrimac, from the sea to a point due north of Pautucket falls; then a due west course to his majesty's other governments. On the north, a line along the middle of Piscataway, and the Salmon Falls river, to the farthest head of the same, extending one hundred and twenty miles from Piscataway harbor, was established as the boundary between New Hampshire and Maine. These are the present boundaries.

Of Vermont. That tract of land which lies on the west side of Connecticut river, between the north line of Massachusetts and Canada, remained a wilderness, till about the year 1750. The charters and grants of

New Hampshire did not extend to the Connecticut; but after the settlement of the line between that colony and Massachusetts in 1739, a line which was run in 1741, the colony of New Hampshire began to extend her claims westward as far as the east line of New York, which is twenty miles from the Hudson. Fort Dumfries had been built in 1724, for a protection against the savages; it was supposed at that time to be in Massachusetts, but on running the line, it fell to the north of that colony, and New Hampshire considered it as within her jurisdiction. The place is now in the town of Brattleborough, in Vermont.

Of the first Locations in Vermont. In 1749, Benning Wentworth, governor of New Hampshire, granted a township on the west, and adjoining to the colony of New York, which he called Bennington—This is the oldest town in that state. For many years, he continued to grant townships on the west side of the Connecticut, and the territory thus acquired the name of New Hampshire grants. Under these grants settlements were made with surprizing rapidity; especially after the conquest of Canada in 1760.—About this time, New York began to assert her claim to this tract of land, under the clause of the grant to the Duke of York, which specified the lands on the *west side of the Connecticut*; and in 1763, Governor Colden issued a proclamation asserting that claim. In 1764, the governor of New Hampshire issued a proclamation, asserting the claims of that colony to the same territory.

Of the Progress of the Controversy. The government of New York applied to the crown, and in 1764 an order was obtained, in which his majesty declared the Connecticut to be the boundary between New Hampshire and New York, which was considered by New York, as a decision that the territory belonged to that colony. In consequence of which, the government of New York proceeded to divide the territory into counties, erect courts and grant lands. The grants made by New Hampshire, were declared to be invalid, and

the grantees were required to surrender them and take new grants under New York. Actions of ejectment were brot and judgment recovered against the occupants. Some of the inhabitants complied with the requisitions; and many refused. Controversies succeeded which ended in opposition to the sheriff of Albany, confusions and riots. In 1767, the agents of the settlers procured an order of the king to put a stop to the proceedings of New York.

Of the violent Measures of New York. In 1772, Governor Tryon of New York made some attempts to effect an amicable adjustment of this controversy; but the claims of the parties could not be reconciled. In 1774, the legislature of New York passed an act, making it felony in any of the settlers to refuse to surrender himself to the orders of the governor and council, and a reward was offered for apprehending seven of the principal settlers. The consequence was, a combination on the part of the settlers, to resist the claims of New York by force. An attempt was made in concert with Col. Skeen, to procure this territory to be erected into a separate royal government; but the revolutionary war in 1775, changed the aspect of affairs. The session of the court at Westminster was opposed by force—one man was killed by the military, in attempting to disperse the insurgents; and a committee of the inhabitants resolved it to be the duty of the settlers to renounce and resist the government of New York, until some security could be obtained for their lives and safety.

Of the Proceedings of the Settlers during the War. In autumn 1775, some persons attended upon the congress in Philadelphia, to obtain advice—but nothing could be obtained, except the opinions of individuals, that it was prudent to associate and form temporary regulations. In January 1776, a convention at Dorset prepared and transmitted a memorial to congress, manifesting their readiness to bear a full proportion of *the burdens of the war*, but not to be considered as be-

longing to New York. Another convention in July 1776, entered into an association for the defence of their rights, and in September, they resolved to take measures for erecting their territory into an independent state. A general convention was called and met in January 1777 at Westminster. On the 16th of that month, it was resolved that the "district of territory, called New Hampshire grants, of right ought to be and is hereby declared to be an independent state." To this territory was given the name of *Vermont*, which signifies *green mountain*, from the mountains of that name, running thro the state.

Of the proceedings of Congress in regard to Vermont. No sooner was a government and state formed in this territory, than an application was made to congress by the convention, to be received into the confederacy, as an independent state. To this measure, the state of New York made a most formidable opposition; and to prevent a rupture, or dangerous altercations with New York, congress was obliged to decline receiving Vermont into the union, and avoid any act that should be construed into an acknowledgment of the independence of that state. New Hampshire had long before ceased to exercise jurisdiction over the territory and had withdrawn all claims to the property.

Of the Extension of Vermont Jurisdiction. By the original grants to Mason, under which New Hampshire was settled, the colony could not claim more than sixty miles of territory from the mouth of the Pascataway. But several towns west of that line were settled and governed by New Hampshire by common consent. In 1778, sixteen of the towns on the east of the Connecticut, and not within the limits of the grants to Mason, petitioned to be united with Vermont. This question was referred to the people, and the assembly in June 1778, voted to receive them into the jurisdiction of Vermont. This measure alarmed New Hampshire, and produced warm remonstrances to Vermont,

and to congress. That body was much displeased, and the next assembly in Vermont voted not to erect the sixteen towns into a county, which was a virtual disavowal of their former proceedings.

Of the Claims to Vermont. The inhabitants of the sixteen discarded towns, and some of the towns on the west of the Connecticut, made a feeble attempt to erect another state, whose center and seat of government should be on the river; but without success. To prevent such confusion and altercation, Vermont, in February 1779, voted to dissolve the union with the sixteen towns. Soon after this step, New Hampshire voted to assert her claim to the whole territory, as far as the bounds of New York, and New York asserted her claim also to the whole territory, as far as the Connecticut. Massachusetts also set up a claim to a part of the same lands. In this state of things, the governor of New York exercised acts of authority within Vermont, and every thing wore the appearance of an appeal to arms. Some military officers commissioned by the governor of New York, were taken prisoners by Col. Allen of Vermont; but upon the governor's application to congress, they were liberated.

Of the Proceedings of Congress on that Occasion. Congress directed their commissioners, appointed for the purpose, to inquire into the facts relative to these controversies; but this inquiry produced no reconciliation. Congress therefore, in September 1779, recommended to the parties concerned, to pass laws authorizing congress to hear and determine their differences. New York and New Hampshire complied; but Vermont declined it, as did Massachusetts. The government of Vermont published an appeal, in which it was maintained that congress ought not to intermeddle with the police and government of that state, or arbitrate upon its rights. In June 1780, congress resolved that the proceedings of Vermont were highly unwarrantable, and subversive of the peace and welfare of the United States. In September, congress began to hear

evidence of the claims of the states, to the territory of Vermont, but the business was left unfinished.

Of the Extension of the Jurisdiction of Vermont. Vermont being pressed by its opposers, determined to enlarge the limits and augment the strength of the state. By means of circular letters, a convention was called of delegates from the towns on the east side of the river. Forty three towns agreed to unite with Vermont, and in February 1781, their desire was notified to the assembly of Vermont at Windsor. Upon which the Assembly on the 14th of that month, resolved to claim the jurisdiction of all the territory in New Hampshire, west of the Mason line. On the 22d the articles of union were ratified. Some persons within the limits of New York, having intimated a desire to be united with Vermont, for protection, the assembly on the 14th of February, resolved to extend their claim of jurisdiction to the river Hudson.

Of the Negotiations of Vermont with the British Commander. Not having been able, by repeated applications, to procure an admission into the union of the states, the leaders in Vermont adopted the plan of exciting the jealousy of Congress, by entering into a negotiation with the British commanders in New York and Canada; and by making it believed, that, if not received into the union, the state would put itself under the protection of the British government. This negotiation was attended with this good effect—it amused the British with the hope of detaching that state from the American confederacy, and induced them to suspend hostilities on its frontiers. This farce was continued, with great address about three years, until the peace of 1783.

Of the Measures which led to the Admission of Vermont into the Union. On the 7th of August 1781, congress resolved to appoint a committee of five to confer with the agents of the several contending states, respecting the claims of Vermont to independence. On the 20th of the same month, they resolved it to be a preliminary

to the recognition of Vermont as an independent state, that all its claims east of the Connecticut, and within twenty miles of the Hudson, should be relinquished.— In October, these resolutions were considered by the assembly of Vermont, but it was determined not to comply with the conditions. In this situation of affairs, New Hampshire and New York prepared to repel the usurpations of Vermont upon their territory, with force of arms. Fortunately, no blood was shed, and in January 1782, General Washington interposed his influence, and like a guardian angel, persuading the rulers of Vermont to recede from their unwarrantable claims, pointed out to them the way to safety. On the 28th of February 1782, the assembly of Vermont withdrew their claims within their original limits, the Connecticut on the east and New York line on the west.

Of new Sources of Altercation. In the county of Windham, were some persons attached to the government of New York, who opposed the raising and paying of men for protecting the frontiers of Vermont and who attempted to exercise the powers of government under authority from the government of New York. The Sheriff, aided by the military, was sent to protect the courts—Five of the obnoxious characters were banished and others fined. New York appealed to congress, who, in December 1782, resolved that the proceedings of Vermont were derogatory to the authority of the United States, and dangerous to the confederacy. They also required Vermont to indemnify the persons who had suffered damages from their proceedings. This resolution had no effect, but to call forth a bold and spirited remonstrance from the governor and council of Vermont, and another from the assembly, disputing the right of congress to intermeddle with the government of the state, and announcing their determination to maintain independence.

Of the final Admission of Vermont into the Union.
After the peace of 1783, Vermont, released from the

fear of an enemy, was less solicitous about joining the confederacy of states. In this condition, it continued a separate state, managing its own concerns, until the year 1789. But after the organization of the general government over the states, in that year, New York ceased to oppose the independence of Vermont, and in July 1789, appointed commissioners to settle the controversy. In October, Vermont appointed commissioners for the same purpose. After meeting and deliberating, the parties agreed—and New York consented that Vermont should be admitted into the union, on condition of passing an act to pay to New York thirty thousand dollars, as a compensation for lands in Vermont claimed by citizens of New York—In consequence of this agreement, a convention was called at Bennington. In January 1791, a resolution was passed for joining the confederacy, and agents were appointed by the assembly to repair to Philadelphia to negotiate the union. On the 18th of February 1791, the business was completed, and Vermont became a member of the confederacy.

Of the Controversy between Connecticut and Pennsylvania. Connecticut, by her charter, extended from the Narraganset river on the east to the South Sea on the west excepting such lands as were then occupied by prior settlers. This charter was granted in 1662. In 1681 William Penn obtained a grant of lands on the west side of Delaware river, extending northward to the forty third degree of latitude. The date of this grant is nearly nineteen years after the date of the charter of Connecticut; but it covers a part of the territory which the people of Connecticut considered as granted to them. For nearly a century after the date of the charter, Connecticut neglected to claim and settle that part of her territory, which lay westward of the colony of New York; and the commissioners sent by the king determined in 1664, that the river or creek called Maronec, should be the western boundary of Connecticut.



Of the Purchase and Settlement of Wyoming. After Connecticut had granted all the lands eastward of New York, some persons formed a design of planting the lands within her charter, on the Susquehanna. A company was formed in 1753, and a purchase made from the sachems of the six nations, by deed dated July 11th, 1754, of a large tract of land on the Susquehanna, at Wyoming. The legislature of Connecticut sanctioned the proceeding; but by reason of the war which followed, the land lay vacant, till 1762, when the first settlements were begun, which were enlarged in the following years; and especially in 1768. In 1774, the settlement was erected into a town called, Westmoreland, which sent representatives to the assembly of Connecticut. In 1776, it was formed into a county, and courts established, as in other counties in the colony.

Of the Pennsylvania Purchase of the same Lands. The treaty of the Connecticut men with the Indians, and the subsequent purchase, excited the jealousy of the proprietaries of Pennsylvania; and they entered into a negotiation with Hendrick, a sachem who had declined signing the deed to the Connecticut purchasers, to procure a deed of the same lands and defeat the Connecticut purchase. This object was effected so far as that a deed of the lands was obtained from the Indian chiefs. Grants of lands were made under the government of Pennsylvania, and settlements begun which excited warm disputes, and an attempt was made to drive the Connecticut settlers from the lands by force of arms.

Of the Progress of this Controversy. In 1770 the legislature of Connecticut transmitted to England certain questions to be proposed to the most able lawyers, respecting her title to lands west of New York. The answers were favorable to her claims and determined the colony to maintain them. But the revolutionary war suspended the controversy, until the year 1781, when both states agreed to appoint commissioners with

full powers to determin the dispute. The commissioners were appointed, and an act of congress was passed, constituting them a court to hear and determin the controversy. This act was dated August 28, 1782. On the 19th of November 1782, the commissioners met and opened the court at Trenton.

Of the Points in the Controversy. The agents of Connecticut, in support of their claims, relied on the charter granted in 1629 to the council of Plymouth—the Earl of Warwick's deed to Lord Say and Seal and company in 1631—the charter of Connecticut granted in 1662, and the purchase from the Indians in 1754. The agents of Pennsylvania rested their cause on the grant of the lands to William Penn in 1681—a deed from the Indians to the proprietary, dated October 25, 1736, granting to him the right of preemption to the lands in question—and on the known and established bounds of the state of Pennsylvania. It was urged that the settlement of the line between New York and Connecticut in 1650, 1664 and 1683, had established the western boundary of Connecticut. But the agents of the latter state maintained that those decisions were intended only to fix the divisional line between New York and Connecticut.

Of the Determination of the Court. On the 13th of December 1782, the court pronounced their judgment, that it was their unanimous opinion, the state of Connecticut had no right to the lands in Controversy; but that the jurisdiction and preemption of all the territory lying within the charter boundary of Pennsylvania, then claimed by Connecticut, of right belonged to Pennsylvania—This decision terminated the controversy on the part of the state of Connecticut; but as it did not determin the right to the soil, a long and violent controversy ensued between Pennsylvania and the settlers at Wyoming.

Of the Western Reserve. Notwithstanding the state of Connecticut acquiesced in the decision of the court at Trenton, so far as it respected the land claimed by

Pennsylvania, yet they maintained their claim to all the territory within the north and south boundary lines of the state, as expressed in the charter, lying west of the Western limit of Pennsylvania, and extending to the Mississippi. In compliance with the recommendation of Congress, and with a view to obtain the implied sanction of their charter claims, the state of Connecticut, by their delegates in Congress in the year 1786 ceded to the United States, all the lands within the charter limits, west of Pennsylvania, excepting a tract of one hundred and twenty miles in length, adjoining to Pennsylvania, on the west. This cession was accepted, and the acceptance was considered as an indirect acknowledgement that the Connecticut claim was well founded. This tract of one hundred and twenty miles, thus excepted out of the cession, was called the *Reserve*.

Of the Sale and Appropriations of the Reserve. A part of the reserved land, amounting to half a million of acres, was granted by the state to the inhabitants of New London, Fairfield, and Norwalk, whose property had been destroyed by the British troops, during the war. The remainder was sold, in 1795, and the money arising from the sale appropriated to the purpose of constituting a perpetual fund, for the support of schools in the state. To secure this land and the title to the purchasers, against the claims of the United States, an act of congress was obtained in the beginning of the year 1800, by which the title of Connecticut was confirmed, and the purchasers secured in their possessions; on the condition that the state of Connecticut should relinquish all future claim to land, lying westward of the present limits of the state. At the May session of the legislature in 1800, an act was passed fully complying with this condition, and thus ended a controversy which had lasted more than thirty years. The territory thus reserved forms a part of the state of Ohio.

Of the Government and Laws of the New England Colonies. The charters under which the first settle-

ments in New England were made, vested in the corporations, the power of making all laws which should be deemed expedient, provided they were not repugnant to the laws of England. By the charter of Massachusetts, the powers of government were lodged in the governor, deputy governor and eighteen assistants, who were to be chosen by the freemen, and who constituted a court to be held monthly—and in the whole body of the freemen, who were to be summoned to hold a general court at least once in a year. The first general court in Boston was held May 17, Old Style, 1631, when all the freemen attended and took the oath.

Of the first Practice under the Charter. At the first election the freemen chose the assistants and these chose the governor and deputy governor from among their own number ; but this was a departure from the charter ; and at the general court in May 1632, it was ordered that the freemen should choose the governor and assistants annually, and the governor be always selected from among the assistants. The governor and assistants at first exercised great powers—even to the laying of taxes, without consulting the freemen. The people in Watertown opposed this practice, but the court of assistants summoned them to appear before the court at Boston, and convinced them that the “government was rather in the nature of a parliament, than of a city corporation.” The opposers therefore submitted and retracted what was called their error ; but in fact was a correct opinion.

Of the Qualifications of a Freeman. In addition to the usual qualifications of electors, the possession of property and a good character, the first settlers of New England made it requisite, that a man should be in full communion with the church, to entitle him to the privilege of voting for rulers, and it was usual for the candidate to procure a certificate from his minister, of his orthodox principles and moral conversation. In Massachusetts, a proposition was made to the court in

1644, to repeal this law and extend the rights of freemen to others, who were not church members; but it was postponed, and the law continued till the year 1662, when it was repealed, in conformity with the injunctions of king Charles the second.

Of Changes in the Government of Massachusetts. It was customary at first for all the freemen of the colony to meet in general court, and the governor, assistants and freemen all assembled in one body or house. As the freemen multiplied, it became inconvenient for all to attend, and at the election in April, 1634, the freemen chose two of their number from each town to meet and consult upon some matters, previous to the general court in May, which had for their object a limitation of the powers of the court of assistants. After a consultation, and a perusal of the charter, they were convinced that the court of assistants had exceeded their powers, and repaired to the governor to advise with him and to propose the abrogation of some of their laws. The governor suggested, that as it was inconvenient for all the freemen to attend, a select number of them should revise, consider and prepare new laws or alterations, for the general court.

Of the Establishment of Representatives. In consequence of these proceedings, the general court in May 1634 enacted that there should be four general courts annually, but the whole body of freemen should be present only at the court of elections, and at the other three courts *deputies*, only from the towns should attend and manage the public concerns. The number of deputies from each town was three until the year 1639, when by an order of the general court the number was reduced to two. This ordinance excited much popular jealousy, which gradually yielded to a full conviction of its expedience.

Of the Origin of a negative Vote in the Court of Assistants. At the general court in September 1634, the Newtown people, under Mr. Hooker, presented a request for permission to remove to Connecticut; alle-

ging, as reasons, the want of more room to accommodate themselves with pasturage, the fertility of the Connecticut land and the urgency of their wishes. Many objections were raised to this proposal—among others, the unity of the Newtown people under the charter, and their duty to protect the colony, which was weak and exposed to assaults from the savages—they urged also the exposure of the people to the Dutch and Indians on the Connecticut. After great debate, the vote was taken—the governor and two assistants were in favor of the removal—the deputy governor and the rest of the assistants were against it—of the deputies, fifteen were for it, and ten against it. As the charter required seven of the assistants, to make a quorum, and there was not a vote of a majority of that number for the removal, the governor and assistants contended, that the vote was not carried in the affirmative. On the other hand, there was a majority of the deputies in favor of it, and the deputies contended that the assistants could not impose a negative on their vote.

Of the Progress of this Dispute. As neither of the parties would yield the point in dispute, the court adjourned without entering the vote on the record; all agreeing however to keep a day of religious humiliation on that occasion, which was observed by all the congregations. Mr. Cotton, an eminent and influential clergyman, preached a sermon, in which he maintained the “strength of the magistracy or assistants to be their authority—that of the people, their liberty—that of the ministry, their purity,” and he gave such reasons for the negative power of each, that, if not convinced, all were satisfied to let the question subside. A few days after, the court met, and business was carried on amicably; the assistants maintaining their negative voice, even while the representatives sat with them in the same room and all formed but one house or legislative body.

Of the Division of the Legislature into two Branches.

The assistants and deputies continued to sit in the same room and vote together about ten years ; but not without great discontent on the part of the deputies, who conceived themselves abridged of their just rights, by the negative vote of the assistants. In March 1644, this dispute gave rise to a motion on the part of the deputies, that the assistants and deputies should separate and hold their deliberations in different rooms ; and that the concurrence of both houses should be necessary to pass a bill into a law or resolve. The motion prevailed—and thus was established the distribution of the legislative power into two houses, which remains to this day, and has been adopted as a principle in most of the American Constitutions. In Connecticut however the practice of the assistants and deputies' sitting and voting together continued, until the October session in 1698, when the legislature passed an act by which that body was divided into two houses.

Of Attempts in Massachusetts to create Magistrates for Life. It was an opinion among our pious ancestors, that great respect should be paid to elderly men, to magistrates and to ministers. This opinion was justified by the scriptures, and productive of very salutary effects. Some persons carried their attempts farther than was agreeable to public opinion. Before the general court at Boston in May, 1634, Mr. Cotton in a sermon maintained that a magistrate ought not to be turned into the condition of a private man ; and the question afterwards coming before the court, was prudently postponed. In May 1636, a law passed to continue certain magistrates or assistants in office for life, as a standing council, and two were chosen for the purpose. But in May 1639, one of the elders giving his opinion that the governor ought to hold his office for life, popular jealousy was alarmed and a bill was presented to prohibit a councillor from exercising his office, unless annually elected to be a magistrate. This bill, *to quiet the apprehensions of the people, was readily passed into a law.*

Of the Introduction of Voting by Proxy. As the people were resolutely opposed to the extension of the power of the assistants, always pleading the charter to justify their opposition ; so they took the liberty to depart from the letter of that instrument, when it was judged expedient. The charter vested the powers of government in the court of assistants, and whole body of freemen ; making no provision for voting by proxy. But in May 1636, a law passed permitting the freemen of remote towns to send their votes by proxy to the court of elections. One reason for this alteration, was, the difficulty of procuring provisions for the whole assembly of freemen. This precedent being established, was afterwards followed by all the towns.

Of the Manner of Voting. In electing officers, the freemen at first used beans and corn—a bean gave a negative—and a kernel of corn, an affirmative vote. In 1634, pieces of paper were used—those for governor and deputy governor containing the name of the person voted for—but in choosing assistants, the name of a person was proposed by the governor or presiding officer ; those who voted for the person, gave a paper with some writing on it—those who voted against him, gave blank paper. This custom gave rise to the manner of electing the council of Connecticut by nomination, which is still practiced.

Of the Choice of the Governor. It was an established law in the colonies to elect one of the assistants to be governor. This law in Connecticut was repealed in 1708, and the freemen were empowered to elect a governor from among their own body at large. But in such estimation have the governor and assistants been usually held by the people, that the same persons have, almost uniformly, been rechosen annually to their respective offices, during life, or during their ability to perform public business. This unchanging confidence in their rulers, while it is an evidence that they have not abused their powers, has been a principal means of

the stability of government and harmony of councils, which have distinguished the New England republics.

Of the Laws of the first Colonies. For a few years after the colonies were settled in New England, the magistrates governed by temporary regulations, or discretionary decisions; aiming to bottom all their laws, and proceedings on the word of God. But as many cases occurred which it was difficult to determin, for want of precise rules, and the people thought such discretionary powers unsafe, the court of Massachusetts appointed a committee in March 1638, to compile a body of fundamental laws. The draft was prepared and in autumn 1639, published for consideration. In December 1641, the general court enacted the laws, which were called the "Body of Liberties." Most of these laws were copied into the first code of Connecticut.

Of the Character of the Primitive New England Code. Most of the laws of the first settlers were founded on justice, the laws of England and of nations, but adapted to the peculiar circumstances of the colonies. They were devised by able men of strict probity and religion, and remain the basis of the civil institutions of the states to this day. But as the compilers of those codes, were puritans of rigid principles, their reverence for the scriptures led them to adopt some of the levitical laws, which are not adapted to modern times. Hence blasphemy, an obstinate denial of the being of a God, adultery, stubborn disobedience of children, and witchcraft were punishable with death, and heretics were subject to banishment. Under these laws, some persons suffered punishments that were cruel and unjust. But the colonies were no worse than the mother country, where dissenters of all kinds were cruelly persecuted, and where witchcraft was punishable with death, long after the tragedies of that sort had ceased in New England. It was an intolerant spirit common to all Europe, and the other American colonies.

Of the Primitive Government of Plymouth Colony.
The planters at Plymouth were few in number, and they adopted the laws of England mostly as the rules of judging in their own concerns, but, like those of Massachusetts, they annexed to some crimes penalties far too severe. They at first elected no civil officer except a governor and one assistant—in 1624, four more assistants were added, and in 1633, two more, making seven in all, which number continued till they resigned their charter to Andross. They had no deputies from the towns, until the year 1639, when deputies were chosen and formed, one house with the governor and assistants. Before that time, the freemen attended in person.

Of the Judiciary Power of the New England Colonies.
The supreme power of deciding all cases in law and equity, was originally in the court of assistants in Massachusetts; and in Plymouth, was vested in the governor and assistants by a law in 1634. The same law was adopted in Connecticut; and when by the increase of people and business, it was found inconvenient for the whole body of assistants to attend, it became a custom for the general court to appoint annually four of the assistants with the deputy governor, to constitute the superior court. This practice continued till the May session 1784, when the governor, deputy governor and assistants were disabled from holding the office of a judge of that court. The practice of the annual appointment of judges, derived from the practice of choosing the assistants annually, subsists to this day.—The judges of the county courts also were primitively taken from among the assistants. As the supreme judiciary power, in the infant state of the colonies, was exercised by the general court, when the assistants and deputies met in one house, so the legislature of Connecticut for a long time after its division into two houses, retained the same power.

Of the ecclesiastical Affairs of the New England Colonies. The puritans left England and settled in America.

for the purpose of enjoying liberty of conscience, not being willing to conform to the ceremonies of the church of England. In America, they adopted the independent or congregational plan of government ; by which each church chooses its own minister and officers, and submits to no government or censure from another church. They elected pastors and teachers, ruling elders and deacons ; and it was the practice at times for the elders or principal men to expound passages of scripture, or discuss questions, which was called *prophecyng*, in imitation of the primitive churches. No church could be gathered, without the permission of the magistrates. Ordination was performed by the laying on of hands, either of the neighboring ministers, or of lay brethren of the church. The former method was the most usual. The office of ruling elder and the custom of prophecyng soon went into disuse.

Of the Sabbath and some peculiar Customs. The first settlers had scruples about the lawfulness of calling the days of the week by the names derived from idolatrous nations ; they therefore called them by the numbers, first, second, third, &c. They called the first day, Sabbath or Lord's day—The months they called the first, second, third, &c. beginning the year on the 26th of March, which was the first month—April, the second, and so on. The time of beginning the Sabbath was a subject of much debate and difficulty. The practice of keeping Saturday evening as holy time, seems to have originated in an order or injunction of the governor and deputy governor of the New England company, dated in England April 17, 1629, and directed to Mr. Endicott at Salem, that all persons should cease from labor at three o'clock on Saturday afternoon, and spend the rest of the day in catechizing and preparation for the sabbath. This practice was against the opinion of some eminent clergymen of that day, especially of Mr. Hooker.

Of public Lectures. For four years after Boston was settled, four lectures were preached weekly ; but in

October 1634, it was agreed by the ministers and magistrates, that this number required too much time; and therefore they reduced the number to two, which were to be preached alternately at Boston, Cambridge, Roxbury and Dorchester. The number is now reduced to one, which is preached every Thursday at Boston.

Of Days of Fasting and Thanksgiving. The churches laid aside the regular festivals of the Church of England, and appointed days of fasting, on special occasions, such as times of severe drouth, great mortality, scarcity of provisions, danger from the savages and the like. Days of thanksgiving were appointed on occasions of great joy, such as the conquest of the Pequots, the termination of Indian wars, and especially for abundant crops. These occasional days were frequent during the first generation, who suffered peculiar hardships, and who were exposed to unceasing perils, which impressed their minds deeply with a sense of their dependence on the Supreme Being. The practice of the first settlers has given rise, among their descendants, to a regular appointment of a day of humiliation in the spring, and a day of thanksgiving in autumn.

Of Church Disciplin. The first churches were very rigid in their authority over the principles and morals of their members. The least deviation from what they believed to be orthodoxy, and every immorality, was subjected to church censures. This narrow inspection of every man's conduct, produced for many years, most exact morals in life and great uniformity of doctrine. But it was not possible to prevent differences of opinion, and when these arose, the severity with which the persons who avowed them, were censured, occasioned many heartburnings and mutual reproaches. Some persons were banished from Massachusetts, or excommunicated by the churches, and leaving the colony, they planted Rhode Island. The same rigid principles led to many abstruse inquiries and minute distinctions on religious subjects, which divided the opinions of people; and in some instances, churches were rent

asunder by speculative distinctions that are hardly intelligible. This party spirit was the offspring of excessive zeal to preserve a pure church; for men had not learnt that party spirit, in religion as in government, always thrives under persecution, and obstinate intolerance. But this intolerant spirit lasted but a few years.

Of the Platform of the Churches. In 1634 the churches in New England adopted certain canons and constitutions, defining the officers, their duties, modes of election, and the rules of proceeding and government. In 1648, a synod of elders and messengers at Cambridge adopted a platform of church government, containing the principles held by the churches, and an explanation of the powers and duties of the officers, the mode of ordination, the powers of the church, the manner of maintaining ministers, and the rules of admission, excommunication and censure. In 1708, delegates from the councils of the counties in Connecticut met at Saybrook and agreed upon an ecclesiastical constitution, called the *platform*, containing a confession of faith and regulations for administering church discipline. This was confirmed by the legislature in October of the same year, and remains the basis of church government to this day.

Of the Union of Churches in Connecticut. By the Saybrook platform, the ministers, elders and messengers of all the churches in a county or other district, constitute a *consociation*. The ministers of the churches in a county or other district, form an *association*, which is empowered to examine and recommend candidates. These councils are consulted in regard to religious concerns, and assist the churches in ordaining and dismissing their ministers; but their powers are mostly advisory. They however contribute, by their influence, to preserve peace and harmony among churches, restrain controversies and reconcile differences. A general association consists of delegates from the several associations in the state, and holds an annual meeting in each of the counties by rotation.

Of the Support of the Congregational Clergy. The first ministers in New England were maintained by weekly contributions. The famous Mr. Cotton preached a sermon in Boston, in December 1633, in which he urged that the scriptures clearly direct the maintenance of ministers to be defrayed, like other charges of the church, out of a chest or treasury to be supplied by contribution; upon which the church adopted the practice. But it was laid down as a principle, in the first church laws, that ministers ought to be supported by their hearers, and in case of neglect, that the magistrate might be called upon to compel them to make payment. The clergy have now fixed salaries paid by a tax on the pews of the church or the property of the hearers. The first settlers in Rhode Island adopted a different principle, and a declaration of general toleration, being incorporated into the charter of that colony, the laws furnish no aid in supporting the gospel. In none of the states, at this time, is a man compelled to maintain religious worship, in a church to which he does not belong.

Of the Introduction of the Episcopal Church. There was no regular public worship in Massachusetts, except in the congregational churches, until the year 1686, when an episcopal church, consisting of about four hundred persons, met regularly for worship. The first episcopal church in Connecticut was collected at Rye in 1704, under Mr. Muirson. The second was formed at Stratford in 1706. Some opposition was made to the establishment of that church in the colony, which served only to increase the zeal of its advocates. From such small beginnings, the episcopal church has become large and respectable in many parts of New England, especially in the commercial towns.

Of a Community of Lands and Goods in Plymouth. The first adventurers to Plymouth placed all their property in a common stock, to be used and improved for the benefit of the company. The lands also were at first cultivated in common, and the fruits of the earth,

deposited in a common magazine. Within three years, experience convinced the people of the absurdity of the project ; for many persons, expecting to be maintained out of the public fund, neglected to labor, and the colony was in danger of perishing with hunger. In 1623, the company placed every single person in some family, assigned a portion of land to each, and left every family to trust to its own labor for food. The consequence was the settlers became more industrious, more contented, and had food in abundance.

Of Sumptuary and Regulating Laws. The planters of New England, on their arrival in a wilderness, where it was difficult at first to obtain the necessaries of life, and impossible to enjoy luxuries, attempted by example and law to restrain all excesses in diet or dress. Governor Winthrop, soon after he arrived, laid aside the practice of drinking healths, at his own table, and recommended it to others. In 1639, the practice was forbid by law. In 1634, laws were passed prohibiting the use of tobacco, immodest fashions, and costly apparel. In 1633, a law was made to limit the price of labor ; workmen being scarce and demanding high wages. Master workmen were allowed two shillings and laborers, eighteen pence, a day : Money being of sterling value. It was also ordered that the advance on goods should not exceed four pence on a shilling, beyond the price in England. These laws had no durable effect, and the general court in 1640, finding that laborers would either transgress the laws or leave the colony, repealed the act regulating wages, and left every town to fix the price of labor among its own inhabitants, which had a better effect.

Of the first Shipping built in New England. The first attempt to build water craft in New England, was in 1626. The Plymouth people, finding themselves exposed to great hazards in coasting with an open boat, and having no ship carpenter, employed a house carpenter, who sawed into two parts their largest boat, inserted timbers to lengthen it five or six feet, built a

deck and rigged it into a convenient vessel, which did service for seven years.

The first vessel built in Massachusetts was a bark of thirty tons, built by Governor Winthrop, at Mistic, launched July 4, 1631; and called the *Blessing of the Bay*. The day of the first launch is now the anniversary of Independence. In 1633, a small ship of sixty tons was built at Medford. In 1636, a ship of one hundred and twenty tons was built at Marblehead, and called the *Desire*, which belonged to the people of Salem, whose descendants are remarkable for their commercial enterprize. This was the first American ship that made a voyage to England.

Of the Causes which promoted Ship Building. The planters of New England had vested all their property in money, or necessaries for beginning a plantation; but having little commerce, their money was, in a few years, expended, and they had few resources to supply themselves. Foreign ships came to trade with them, but took little besides money in payment, by which means, the colonies were soon drained of cash. Brass farthings were sometime used for small change, and afterwards bullets. In 1640, money had become so scarce, that the government directed grain to be given in payment of debts, at fixed prices; and when no personal estate could be found, lands to be appraised to creditors upon execution. This was the origin of tender laws. In this situation, the price of lands, and of cattle fell to a fourth of their former nominal value. This put the people upon sowing flax and hemp and importing cotton.

Of the first Attempt to encourage Commerce. In this languishing state of trade, the apprehension of a want of foreign commodities, alarmed the people in Massachusetts, and they determined to provide shipping of their own. Mr. Peters, a public spirited man, procured a number of persons to join him in building a ship of three hundred tons at Salem in 1640, and this ex-

ample was soon followed by the inhabitants of Boston, who built one of one hundred and sixty tons. Both were finished in 1641. That of Boston was called the Trial. Money was not obtainable to pay the carpenters, but they agreed to take the produce of the country. Thus commenced a spirit of commerce which has made the northern states rich and respectable.

Of the Fisheries and Trade of the Colonies. Within a few years after the discovery of North America by Cabot, the English and French began to take great quantities of fish on the American coast, especially on the banks of Newfoundland. This business had become of great importance, more than fifty years before the settlement of Plymouth. The fish were mostly carried to Spain and Portugal. The first planters in New England found their time and money so much occupied in procuring the means of subsistence, that for some years, they could not carry on the fisheries to a great extent. Their principal article of export was peltry, and mostly beaver skins, which they purchased of the Indians for goods of small value. To procure beaver, was the first object of the colonies in establishing trading houses at Kennebec, Connecticut and other places. In 1639, a fishing trade was begun at Cape Ann, and the stock employed in it was exempted from taxation for seven years. This seems to have been the first act of government for encouraging the fishery. In 1641, three hundred thousand codfish were sent to market.

Of the importance of the Peltry Trade to the Colonies. Of such value was the trade in peltry to the first planters, that each colony claimed and maintained an exclusive right of trading with the Indians, within the limits of its own patent. Hence arose serious contests between the colonies. In 1631, a small pinnacle from Salem, bound to Boston, was driven into Plymouth by adverse winds, and the governor of Plymouth was so much alarmed with the fear that the people should open a trade with the natives, that he forbid them and threat-

ened to oppose them by force. A similar jealousy caused a contest between the Plymouth traders at Kennebec and a trading boat from Pascataway, in which two men were killed. This trade also was a principal cause of the controversy between the English and Dutch, concerning the right to Connecticut river. And so valuable was the trade, that the English even planted maize for the Indians, the better to enable them to spend their time in collecting beaver.

Of the Progress of Trade in the Colonies. The planters imported at first much of their provisions, and for many years, all their clothing from England. In 1631, on account of a scarcity in England, their wheat, with the freight, cost them fourteen shillings sterling a bushel, and pease, eleven and six pence. From Virginia, they received small supplies of maize. In 1631, a small pinnace from Virginia sold her maize in Salem for ten shillings sterling the bushel. In the same year, an English ship, after landing some cattle at Boston, sailed for St. Kitts, but not to return to New England. In 1634, a vessel went to Bermuda and returned by the way of Virginia, with corn and oats. The first vessel directly from the West Indies, was a Dutch ship of 160 tons, which came from St. Kitts and arrived at Marblehead, in May, 1635, laden with salt and tobacco. St. Kitts had then been settled twelve years and contained about four thousand inhabitants. In June, the same year, arrived two Dutch ships from the Texel, with horses and cattle; the price of such animals being high—horses and mares from thirty to forty pounds sterling—cows and heifers, from twelve to twenty five pounds, and sheep fifty shillings. In April 1636, the small ship built at Medford returned from Bermuda, with potatoes, which were sold in Boston at two pence the pound; corn being very scarce.

Of Trade to the West Indies. The first American vessel that went to the West Indies, was a pinnace of thirty tons, which, in 1636, was bound to Bermuda, and attempting to return, was forced by stress of weather

er, to Hispaniola. She returned the next spring, with *hides* and *tallow*. The next year, the Salem ship, *Desire*, made a voyage to New Providence and Tortuga, and returned in March 1638, laden with cotton, tobacco, salt and *negroes*. This seems to be the date of the first introduction of Africans into New England. The next arrival from the West Indies was a small English vessel, in 1639, with indigo and sugar—and this is the first mention, in our annals, of the importation of these articles. In 1642 three ships were built, one at Boston—one at Salem, and the other at Dorchester. In the same year, a Dutch ship from the West Indies exchanged her cargo of salt for plank and pipe staves—the first export of lumber to the West Indies mentioned in the annals of New England. A second ship arrived the same year and took a cargo of pipe staves, and ten ships sailed with lumber before winter. This first discovery of new markets for lumber excited no small joy among the planters; for staves had lain useless on their hands.

Of Trade to other Foreign Countries. In autumn 1642, a small ship arrived at Boston from Madeira laden with wine and sugar, which were exchanged for pipe staves and other commodities. One of the Boston ships, laden with lumber and fish, made a voyage to Fayal and the West Indies. The other lumber ships, which went to the West Indies, made successful voyages, and returned in the spring of 1643 with wine, sugar and cotton. At that time, the colonies were in great distress for food, owing to a bad crop of corn; and otherwise impoverished, so that some of the people actually left New England, and many talked of abandoning the country. The successes of their infant trade, at this juncture, gave them new life, contributing to establish the settlements and render them prosperous.

Of the Trade of Connecticut. The planters on the Connecticut, occupying a rich soil, attended very little to trade, for many years. They exported *walrus*

and lumber to the West Indies, Payal and Madeira, but in 1686, the amount did not exceed nine thousand pounds. At that time no more than twenty small vessels belonged to the colony. They had a trifling trade with New York, but most of their traders supplied themselves with goods at Boston, where they sold the provisions which were exported. The primitive planters of New Haven contemplated a great trade; but a ship of one hundred and fifty tons, which they had procured to be built at Rhode Island, going to sea, in the winter of 1646—7, foundered and was lost with six or seven of the principal planters; which, with other discouragements, frustrated their intentions.

Of Arts and Manufactures. The first mill erected by the planters was a windmill near Watertown, but the situation not being good, it was taken down in August 1632 and placed on a hill in Boston. To this mill, corn was brot from Pascataway to be ground. In 1633, a watermill was erected by one Dummer, at Roxbury. In 1636, a windmill was erected at Charlestown, and watermills at Salem, Ipswich and Newbury. By order of the court, a market was erected in Boston in March 1634, and Thursday was directed to be the weekly market day. In the same year was set up the first merchant's shop and the first house of entertainment. The manufactures of the settlers were very few, and confined to the most necessary articles of clothing and utensils for agriculture. Not being used to clearing lands of wood, they bestowed more labor than was necessary, as they dug up all the stumps of the trees. By bills of charges now extant, it appears that the clearing of one home lot in Hartford, cost fifty pounds sterling an acre.

Of the Introduction of Printing. The first printing press in New England, was established at Cambridge, in March 1639, by one Day; the proprietor's name was Glover, who died on his passage to America. The first thing printed was the freemen's oath—the second

an almanac—and the third a version of the psalms. No press was set up in Connecticut until the year 1709, when printing was begun at New London by one Short. The first code of Connecticut laws was revised by the general court held at Hartford in October 1672, and printed by Samuel Green at Cambridge, in Massachusetts, in 1675. The first gazette published in New England, was the *News Letter*, printed in Boston in 1704. The first newspaper in Connecticut was the *Connecticut Gazette*, begun at New Haven by James Parker, in January, 1753, but was discontinued in 1767, the printer moving to New York.

Of the Foundation of Colleges. The first university in the colonies was that at Cambridge, founded in 1638. The first commencement was held in October 1642, when nine students were admitted to the degree of bachelors. It took its name *Harvard*, from a principal benefactor. For more than sixty years, gentlemen in Connecticut sent their sons to Cambridge for an education; but in 1699 the clergy in Connecticut nominated ten of their number, as trustees to found a college. These met at New Haven in 1700 and formed a society, which was to consist of eleven clergymen and a rector, for the purpose of establishing and governing a college. A charter of incorporation was granted by the legislature in October 1701. Mr. Pierson of Killingworth was appointed the first rector, and during his life, he instructed the students in that town. The first commencement was in September 1702. On the death of Mr. Pierson in 1704, the students were placed in Milford and Saybrook, under different instructors, and so continued until 1716, when New Haven was made the permanent seat of the college. In the year 1799, the number of graduates amounted to two thousand five hundred and five. It is called *Yale College*, after the name of one of its principal benefactors.

Of the Establishment of Public Schools. The first planters of New England, aware of the importance of

knowledge and learning among a free, christian people, extended their care to the education of their children; and as soon as the first difficulties of obtaining subsistence, were overcome, passed laws for encouraging the general diffusion of knowledge. In Massachusetts and Connecticut, every town, containing a sufficient number of householders, was obliged to procure a teacher for such children as parents wished to put under his care. In Connecticut, this provision extended to females as well as males. And the better to induce every town to avail itself of this provision, the law grants and appropriates, to each town or school district, a sum of money payable out of the treasury of the state, equal to one five hundredth part of the value of the taxable property of the inhabitants, as rated in the grand list or public assessment. In addition to this, each town has the command of a large fund arising from the sale of a tract of land called the *Western Reserve*. In consequence of which almost every child in the state has access to a school, some part of the year.

SECTION IX.

MILITARY EVENTS.

Of the principal Wars in the Colonies.

WHILE the people of this country remained under the dominion of Great Britain, they were involved in all her contentions with France and the Dutch. Soon, after king William ascended the throne of England in 1688, war was declared by France, and the French commander in Canada instigated the savages to fall on the frontier settlements. It was on this occasion that Schenectady was sacked, and the inhabitants massacred. To put a stop to the depredations of the French and savages, it was contemplated to conquer Canada. For this purpose an expedition was projected

by the commissioners of the colonies in 1690. The crown was solicited to afford some aid, but it could not be granted on account of the troubles in Great Britain.

Of the Expedition against Canada under Sir William Phips. The land forces ordered for this invasion consisted of eight hundred and fifty men, raised by the colonies of New England and New York, and commanded by General Winthrop. At the same time, a fleet of armed ships and transports, with eighteen hundred men, under Sir William Phips, was ordered to sail up the Iroquois, to co operate with the land forces in the reduction of Quebec. But the expedition proved unsuccessful. The fleet had a long passage and did not arrive before Quebec till October. The land troops were not furnished with provisions, nor boats to convey them over the lake and they returned. The forces however landed from the fleet, and the ships cannonaded Quebec, but without much effect; while they suffered severely from the batteries of the enemy. Stormy weather soon succeeded and made it necessary to abandon the enterprize.

Of Col. Fletcher's Commission. In 1692, Col. Fletcher arrived with the commission of governor of New York, and also with power to command the militia and garrisons of Connecticut. The colony immediately dispatched General Winthrop, as an agent, to remonstrate to the king and council, against this extraordinary power. In the mean time, Col. Fletcher went to Hartford, and in his majesty's name, required the colony to surrender to him the command of the military. The train bands in Hartford were paraded and Col. Fletcher directed his secretary to read his commission. But Capt. Wadsworth, the senior officer, ordered the drums to be beat and interrupted the reading. Col. Fletcher commanded silence, repeatedly; till Capt. Wadsworth, with a firm tone, told him, "if he was not silent, he would make the sun shine thro him in a moment." Col. Fletcher, finding he could not suc-

ceed, judged it expedient to withdraw, and returned to New York.

Of the Progress and Conclusion of this War. In the spring of 1690, Sir William Phips, with a few ships and a small number of men, took possession of Nova Scotia, and the country from Port Royal to Penobscot. The Massachusetts colony began to exercise the powers of government there ; but was interrupted by Villebon, a Frenchman, who established himself on the river St. John. The French also sent a force from Quebec and took the fort at Pemaquid and demolished it. Upon which Capt. Church, with a body of troops, committed depredations upon the French inhabitants, and an attempt was made to take Villebon's fort, but by ill management, it was frustrated. In 1693, a fleet under Sir Francis Wheeler, was ordered to act against the French in the West Indies, and then to repair to Quebec and in conjunction with a body of New England troops, reduce Canada. But by a malignant fever, which destroyed most of the troops of the fleet, this expedition was defeated. In 1697, the French in Canada planned an attack upon Boston, and a large fleet was sent from France to co operate in the design; but adverse winds, and other ill events, frustrated the project.—In the same year, a treaty of peace was signed at Ryswick, between England and France, and hostilities ceased.

Of the War in Queen Ann's Reign. Soon after queen Ann succeeded to the English throne, in 1702, war was declared against France, and the settlements in New England were again exposed to the incursions of ferocious Frenchmen and Indians from Canada. In 1704, Col. Church, with a party of men, visited Nova Scotia, and distressed the poor inhabitants, without taking any important post. After burning and plundering several towns and villages he returned. In 1707, a considerable force was sent under Col. March, to reduce Port Royal, in Nova Scotia ; but after landing and engaging in some skirmishes, it was judged raw

troops were not sufficient to take so strong a fort, and they retired to Casco. Here a reinforcement was received, and three persons arrived with authority from Massachusetts, to renew and inspect the siege. But a second attempt proved equally unsuccessful. In August 1708, a party of Indians, headed by Frenchmen, assaulted Haverhill on the Merrimac, burnt some of the houses and slew thirty or forty of the inhabitants. Mr. Rolfe, the minister, was killed; but his maid covered two of his young daughters with tubs in the cellar, and saved their lives.

Of the Progress of this War. Finding the colonies could not be safe from the ravages of the French and Indians, while Canada and Nova Scotia were under the government of France, Massachusetts solicited, and the queen granted a large naval force, to aid in the reduction of these provinces. The New England colonies, with New York, in 1709, raised about two thousand and five hundred men, who were commanded by General Nicholson. These marched to Wood Creek, south of lake George, and there waited to hear of the arrival of the expected fleet at Boston. But the fleet did not arrive, and the troops lay at Wood Creek, till autumn. While encamped, they were attacked with a malignant disease, which occasioned a great mortality, and compelled them to withdraw.—Thus ended all the expensive preparations for subduing Canada. The next year, however, a body of colonial troops, under General Nicholson, sailed to Port Royal, and took possession of it by capitulation.

Of the Expedition under Admiral Walker. In 1711, General Nicholson procured of the queen, a fleet of men of war and transports, under Admiral Walker, for aiding in the conquest of Canada. This fleet arrived at Boston in June, and altho not expected, the colonies made the best preparation they could to second the operations. The whole force, when the British and colonial troops were united, amounted to seven thousand men. General Nicholson went to Albany, in-

tending, with additional forces, to join Admiral Walker before Quebec. The fleet sailed from Boston July 30th, but met with fogs and tempestuous weather, near the mouth of the St. Lawrence, in which eight or nine transports, with about a thousand men were lost, by ship wreck. This put an end to the expedition—the admiral sailed to England, and the colonial troops returned. The peace of Utrecht, signed March 3d, 1713, put an end to hostilities, and continued till 1739.

Of the Taking of Lewisburg. Great Britain declared war against Spain in October 1739, and against France in March, 1744. In the following winter, the legislature of Massachusetts planned a daring, but successful enterprize against Lewisburg, a strong fortress belonging to the French, on the island of Cape Breton. The motive was to remove the French, who greatly annoyed our fishery; and Governor Shirley was the most active promoter of the expedition. Four thousand troops from Massachusetts, Connecticut and New Hampshire, under the command of General Pepperel, sailed from Boston, the last week in March 1745. The expedition was undertaken without the knowledge of the government of England; but a request had been made to commodore Warren, then in the West Indies, to assist in its execution, who arrived with a sixty gun ship, and two or three frigates. The troops arrived, the latter part of April, and landing their heavy cannon, planted batteries, without regard to system, and pushed the siege with such vigor, that the garrison capitulated on the 17th of June. This expedition was as honorable to the projectors, as the acquisition of the fortress was useful to the colonies, and the British Empire.

Of the French Chebucto Fleet. In 1746, the French fitted out a fleet of eleven ships of the line, with a great number of smaller ships, and more than three thousand land forces, under the command of the duke Danville, for the purpose of recovering possession of

Cape Breton and attacking the English colonies. This force was to be joined by four ships under Conflans from the West Indies, and seventeen hundred French and Indians from Canada. No English fleet sailed in quest of the French ; and great was the consternation of the colonies, when news was received that the French fleet was near the American coast. But kind providence blasted the hopes of the enemy. By storms, some of the ships were damaged, and they bore away for the West Indies—One was condemned and burnt—one was forced to return to Brest by a malignant disease among her crew. A part of the fleet arrived at Chebuſto, now Halifax, in September ; but the admiral soon died, and the troops were sickly ; so that the fleet returned to France and the colonies were providentially relieved from their anxiety. This war closed by a treaty of peace signed at Aix la Chapelle, in March 1748.

Of the Plan of a Union of the Colonies in 1754.
All the preceding wars had left the French masters of Canada ; they were also in possession of Louisiana, a large tract of country, on the west of the Mississippi. They knew the value of America, and had early formed the plan of restraining the settlements of the English. This was their object in all their wars, and for this purpose, they united with the Indians, in burning towns, and murdering the inhabitants. The better to accomplish their designs, they extended their settlements on the Iroquois and the Lakes ; and finally attempted to establish a chain of fortified places from Canada to Louisiana, on the back of the English colonies. This alarmed Great Britain as well as the colonies, and the British government suggested to the colonies, the necessity of confederating for the purpose of mutual safety.

Of the Meeting of Commissioners and the Plan proposed.
In July 1754, commissioners from the northern and middle colonies met at Albany, and agreed to a plan of union, drawn up by Dr. Franklin. By this it was

proposed that the confederated colonies should have a general government, formed by delegates from the several colonies, and appointed by the houses of representatives, once in three years. This government was to be administered by a president general, who was to be appointed and maintained by the crown. The powers of this grand council extended to affairs of general safety, especially to the regulation of trade with the Indians, purchases of their lands, treaties with them, new settlements, and making provision for defense, in time of war. This plan, tho' obviously salutary for the colonies, was not approved by the crown; probably on account of a jealousy of the growing strength of the colonies, which made the British court apprehend a future resistance of the authority of parliament. In lieu of this plan, the British ministry proposed another, which should be more dependent on the crown; and by this difference of opinion, the projected union was frustrated.

Of the Beginning of the War in 1754. The encroachments of the French, and the erection of forts, on lands claimed by the colonies or the crown of Great Britain, occasioned an order from the crown to the colonies to resist the French. In November 1753, Major Washington, who afterwards commanded the armies of America, was dispatched by Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia, to learn the views of the French, who had taken possession of the territory on the Ohio. By the answer of the French commander, it appeared that the government of France claimed the country, and determined to keep possession. The Virginians then erected a fort on the Monongehala, but it was taken by the French in 1754. In July, the same year, Col. Washington, who commanded about four hundred men, was attacked by superior numbers and obliged to capitulate. In 1755, hostilities commenced between Great Britain and France, and America became the theater of important operations.

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Of General Braddock's Defeat. Early in the spring of 1755, General Braddock, with two regiments, arrived in Virginia, and proceeded, together with a body of colonial troops, under Col. Washington, to drive the French from their fort, on the Ohio. Being delayed by want of carriages, and provisions, he did not arrive at Fort Cumberland, till June. Here he left Col. Dunbar with eight hundred men, to carry forward the provisions and heavy baggage; and advancing towards the French fort, du Quesne, which stood where Pittsburg is now built, his troops amounting to twelve hundred, fell into an ambush of Indians and French, who, being concealed behind trees, fired with fatal effect, upon the British and American troops. The general and his principal officers were killed, with about seven hundred men; the remainder were saved by the brave and skilful conduct of Col. Washington.

Of General Johnson's Victory. In the same summer, the northern colonies raised a body of about five thousand men, who were intended to take Crown Point, a fort fifteen miles north of Ticonderoga. General Johnson, who commanded these troops, marched them to Lake George, where he encamped to wait for battoes to transport the men down the lake. While he lay in that situation, a body of French forces under Baron Dieskau, advanced by South Bay, with a view to attack and seize the camp at the portage, now called Fort Edward. But understanding that the place was defended by cannon, and that General Johnson's camp was destitute of large guns, the Baron altered his plan and attacked General Johnson's troops. The French were repulsed with the loss of several hundred men. An expedition against Niagara, under governor Shirley of Massachusetts, was intended, the same year, and a body of troops marched to the lake; but the execution of the plan was deferred on account of the lateness of the season.

Of the Conquest of Nova Scotia. In the year 1755

also, an expedition against Nova Scotia was conducted by Col. Monckton and General Winslow, with a small body of English troops and two thousand men from Massachusetts. The principal fortress was taken with little loss, and the country subdued. The inhabitants were descendants from French settlers, and had frequently changed masters, as their country was conquered alternately by the English and French. They called themselves neutrals; but it was the determination of the commanders, in this expedition, that they should all be removed and their estates confiscated. Accordingly, about two thousand men, women and children were transported to New England, dispersed into different towns, and incorporated with the inhabitants.

Of the Loss of Fort Oswago. Altho hostilities had commenced in 1754, yet no formal declaration of war was made till May 1756, when it was proclaimed by the British king in the usual form. Lord Loudon was appointed governor of Virginia and commander in chief of the forces in America. Governor Shirley was recalled, and general Abercrombie succeeded him in the command of the forces in the northern colonies. These generals, with additional troops, arrived and proceeded to Albany; but before they were prepared to begin their operations, the garrison at Oswago consisting of fourteen hundred men, had surrendered to the French. This post was very important, as it commanded the communication between Canada, and the Ohio. The campaign closed without any other great event, and the winter was spent in preparations for prosecuting the war with vigor, the next summer.

Of the Military Operations in America in 1757. Great preparations had been made to attack Crown Point, but the plan of operations was changed; and Lord Loudon went to join admiral Holborn, who arrived in July, with a squadron of ships to attack Lewisburg, which had been restored to France by the peace of 1748. This plan also was defeated by the previous

arrival of a strong squadron of French ships and a large land force. Lord Loudon departed, and in the winter following, went to England ; and the English fleet, after being shattered by a violent tempest in September, returned to England. In the mean time, the French general Montcalm laid siege to fort William Henry on Lake George, and after a brave defense, without any prospect of relief, general Webb, the commanding officer, surrendered. Thus the campaign of 1757 ended with disgrace to the British arms ; while the French were gaining strength and multiplying their forts on the back of the colonies. These misfortunes were owing to bad management in the British councils, and the want of concert in the colonies, which were governed by different legislatures, and could not be brought to act with union or energy.

Of the Conquest of Cape Breton in 1758. In 1758, great efforts were made to subdue the French in America. Three armies were employed—one commanded by general Amherst, destined to take Lewisburg—one under general Abercrombie, to act against Crown Point—and a third under general Forbes, to drive the French from the Ohio. A fleet under admiral Boscawen, and twelve thousand men, under general Amherst, laid siege to Lewisburg ; which, after a vigorous resistance, surrendered. Three French ships of the line were set on fire by bombs, and burnt in the harbor. Two others were boarded and taken, and forty cannon out of fifty two in the principal bastions, were dismounted, before the besieged consented to capitulate. The inhabitants of the island were sent to France, and the prisoners to England. Col. Rolls was then dispatched, with a body of troops, to St. Johns, which island submitted to the arms of England. After the conquest of Canada, in 1760, the fortifications of Lewisburg were utterly demolished and reduced to a heap of rubbish.

Of the Defeat of General Abercrombie. The French had erected a fort at Ticonderoga, at the point of com-

munication between Lake George, South Bay and Lake Champlain. To dispossess them of this important place and of Crown Point, was the object of general Abercrombie, with the main division of the forces, amounting to seven thousand British regulars, and ten thousand colonial troops. This army arrived near Ticonderoga, in July. After disembarking from the battoes, the troops had to march thro woods, and the center column under Lord Howe, a young officer of great worth, met and defeated a detachment of the French forces, retreating from an out post; but this advantage was purchased by the loss of Lord Howe. The main body advanced and attacked the fort, but the French were so well protected by abbatis and a breast work eight feet high, that the British troops could not carry the works. After an action of four hours, during which the troops were exposed to a terrible fire, the general ordered a retreat, having lost eighteen hundred men, and returned to the camp at Lake George.

Of the Taking of Fort Frontenac and Pittsburg. The ill success at Ticonderoga was in part counter balanced, by the taking of fort Frontenac on the Iroquois, near lake Ontario, by a party of colonial troops under colonel Bradstreet. This fort was garrisoned by a hundred and ten men only; but contained a great number of cannon, mortars, military stores, provisions and goods. Nine armed vessels were also taken. The whole was effected without bloodshed, and the fort demolished. During these transactions, Gen. Forbes marched from Philadelphia, with a considerable body of troops, to attack the French fort, Duquesne. After passing the mountains, he detached Col. Bouquet, with two thousand men, to a position fifty miles in advance. This officer sent major Grant forward with eight hundred men to reconnoiter the fort and country. The detachment met a superior French force, and was defeated with the loss of major Grant, and three hundred men. But the French, not willing to risk a siege

abandoned the fort, and retired down the Ohio. General Forbes took possession and gave it the name of Pittsburg, which the town since built continues to bear.

Of the Operations of General Amherst. In 1759, the efforts of the British and Americans to reduce the French were more successful. General Amherst, with the main army, crossed lake George, to lay siege to Ticonderoga; but the French abandoned that post and Crown Point. General Amherst took possession, repaired the fort at Ticonderoga, and leaving a strong garrison in it, proceeded to Crown Point, where he built a new fort. Here he built a sloop of sixteen guns and a large boat for six guns, with a brig. With these and his battoes, he embarked to proceed down the lake, but he was baffled by tempestuous weather. The land forces were compelled to return, but the armed vessels proceeded and drove ashore three of the French vessels. General Amherst spent the winter in completing the fortifications at Crown Point, and in opening roads to the colonies.

Of the Reduction of Niagara. During these transactions, general Prideaux laid siege to the French fort at Niagara, in the prosecution of which he was killed, and the command devolved on Sir William Johnson. This officer urged the siege, and defeated a party of troops, coming from Detroit and Venango, to the relief of the place. This success hastened the surrender of the fort, which capitulated the last week in July. This was a valuable acquisition, as well as the possession of Crown Point, and Ticonderoga.

Of the Victory of General Wolfe, and Surrender of Quebec. The forces destined against Quebec were entrusted to General Wolfe, a young officer, who had distinguished himself, the preceding year, at the siege of Lewisburg. The army, amounting to eight thousand men, landed on the island of Orleans, below Quebec, in June. Quebec stands on a rock, at the confluence of Charles River and the Iroquois; it is naturally strong, and was well fortified and defended by a

superior force under General Montcalm. General Wolfe had to contend with immense difficulties, and a detachment of his troops attacking the French entrenchments, at the falls of Montmorence, was repulsed with the loss of five hundred men. At length, the British troops landed in the night and ascended a steep, craggy cliff, to an elevated place which commanded the town. This compelled the French to hazard a battle, which was fought on the 13th of September; in which General Wolfe was killed, and the French General Montcalm, mortally wounded; but the French were defeated; and in a few days the town was surrendered to General Townshend upon capitulation.

Of the Operations at Quebec in the year 1766. General Murray, with six thousand troops, was left to garrison Quebec. By means of the rigors of the climate, and a want of fresh provisions, one thousand of these men died, before spring, with the scurvy and two thousand were disabled from duty. Near the close of April, the French troops, which had been collected during the winter, to the number of ten thousand, attacked General Murray, and defeated his small army, with considerable loss. But General Murray retreated to the town, which he bravely defended, against superior numbers, until the arrival of a squadron of ships, and the destruction of the French ships in the river, induced the French commander, Vaudreuil, to abandon the siege.

Of the final Reduction of Canada. Early in the summer of 1760, General Amherst put in motion his troops, with a view to attack Montreal, the last fortress of consequence remaining in the hands of the French. Advancing from Albany to the lake, he took the French fort, at Isle Royal, and proceeded down the Iroquois, to Montreal, where he was joined by General Murray from Quebec. While preparing to lay siege to the place, Vaudreuil made offers of capitulation, which were accepted, and the town was surrendered on the 7th of September. A small French squadron, sent

with provision and stores to relieve the troops at Montreal, was destroyed by Captain Byron in the bay of Chaleurs. The inhabitants of Canada submitted and took the oath of allegiance to the British crown. Thus, after a century of wars, massacres, and destruction, committed by the French and savages, the colonies were secured from ferocious invaders; and Canada, with a valuable trade in furs, came under the British dominion.

Of the Expedition of Col. Montgomery. While the troops were conquering Canada, the Cherokees, a powerful tribe of savages, were committing outrages on the frontiers of Virginia and Carolina. Governor Lyttleton of South Carolina, with a body of colonial troops, entered the country and obliged the Indians to sue for peace, which was granted. But the savages violated the treaty and attempted to surprize a fort on the frontiers of Carolina. General Amherst, on application, sent Col. Montgomery, with twelve hundred troops, to protect the southern colonies. This officer penetrated into the heart of the Cherokee country, plundering and destroying all the villages and magazines of corn. In revenge, the savages besieged fort Loudon, on the confines of Virginia; the garrison, after being reduced to extreme distress, capitulated; but on their March towards Carolina, a body of savages fell upon the party and murdered five and twenty of them, with all the officers, except Capt. Stuart.

Of the Progress and Termination of this War. Col. Montgomery being obliged by his orders to return to Canada, the Carolinians were alarmed for the safety of the colony, and prevailed with him to leave four companies of men for their defense. Canada being entirely subdued, General Amherst sent Col. Grant, with a body of troops, who landed at Charleston early in 1761. These troops, being joined by a regiment of colonial forces under Col. Middleton, undertook an expedition into the Cherokee country; in which they defeated the savages, with the loss of fifty or sixty of

their own men. After destroying fourteen Indian towns, with the corn and stores, the troops repaired to fort Prince George for rest and refreshment. In a few days after, several chiefs of the Indians arrived with proposals of peace, which were gladly received, and peace concluded.

Of the Conclusion of the War in Europe, and the Peace of Paris. The reduction of Canada, and to the expulsion of the French from the Ohio, put an end to important military operations in America. The great purpose of the war, which was to expel or cripple the power of the French, on the western frontiers, was happily accomplished. In Europe, the war continued to rage, and in the West Indies, the British, aided by colonial troops, took Havanna from the Spaniards in 1762; an expedition in which multitudes of men fell victims to the bilious plague. But on the 10th of February, 1763, a definitive treaty of peace was signed at Paris, by which the French king ceded Nova Scotia, Cape Breton and Canada to the British king, and the middle of the Mississippi, from its source to the river Ibbervil, and the middle of that river to the sea, was made the boundary between the British and French dominions in America. Spain ceded to Great Britain Florida, and all her possessions to the east of the Mississippi. Such was the state of the European possessions in America, at the commencement of the revolution.

SECTION X.

BILLS OF CREDIT.

Of the History of Paper Money.

AFTER the year 1763, while the people of America were subject to the crown of Great Britain, their commerce was regulated by acts of P

liament, which limited and restrained the trade of the colonies principally to British ports. By this means the colonies were deprived of the benefit of many of the best markets for their produce; and the enterprising spirit of the inhabitants was checked, or rendered subservient to the politic views of the parent state. In consequence of these disadvantages, the balance of trade was usually against the colonies; that is, they imported goods to a greater value than they exported; and the difference was paid in specie, as long as it could be procured. This unprofitable trade exhausted the colonies of money, to a distressing degree; and when the public exigences called for extraordinary taxes, the people could not pay them in cash. For a long period, taxes were paid in produce, which was deposited in public stores and sold to raise money. But this was very troublesome and expensive; and the colonies adopted the plan of issuing bills of credit for a medium of trade, in lieu of specie.

Of the first Emission of Bills of Credit in Massachusetts. The colony of Massachusetts, in 1652 coined, into small pieces, a quantity of silver bullion taken from the Spaniards, or received from the West Indies, in the course of trade. The pieces bore the figure of a pine tree, and circulated in New England. This practice continued more than thirty years, and this was the only instance of a mint in the colonies. But this coinage extended only to small change, and could not supply the requisit cash for the colony. The unfortunate expedition against Quebec in 1690, had created a considerable debt against Massachusetts, which there was no money in the treasury to pay. When the soldiers returned, they clamored for their wages—a tax was laid to raise the money—but to prevent a mutiny, the colony issued bills of credit which were to be received in payment of the tax. With these the soldiers were paid; the value of them sunk immediately one third; but as the bills were receivable on

the tax, as the time of payment approached, they gradually appreciated.

Of the subsequent Emissions of Paper Money. To defray the expenses of another expedition against Quebec in 1711, Massachusetts issued a large sum in bills of credit, and in 1714 and 1716 no less than the value of half a million of dollars. Besides these sums, the colony had, from time to time, issued bills to pay the expenses of government, and neglected to redeem the bills, until their depreciation, and its consequent evils had alarmed the crown, and a royal order had been sent to the governor to restrain all further emissions, until the bills extant, should be redeemed. Many schemes were projected to preserve the value of the bills—some part of them were lent to individuals on security—others rested on the faith of government, which was pledged to redeem them—in one case a private company was formed to support their declining credit. But all expedients failed, and in 1749, when the sums in circulation, amounted to more than seven millions of dollars, the value had sunk to about one twelfth of the value of specie.

Of the Redemption of the Massachusetts Bills. The honorable efforts of Massachusetts in the conquest of Lewisburg, had induced the parliament of Great Britain, to grant one hundred and eighty thousand pounds sterling, to indemnify that colony for her expenses. While the bill for this grant was depending, the legislature of Massachusetts passed an act that, with the specie which was expected from England, the bills of credit should be purchased, at the rate of fifty shillings in paper for an ounce of silver, or nearly seven and a half for one. This act was fortunately carried into effect, tho much against popular clamor, and thus was redeemed the largest part of the paper currency. The remainder was directed to be paid into the treasury upon taxes, and an end was put to a multitude of frauds, and numberless public evils, arising from the circulation of a depreciated currency.

Of the Paper Currency of South Carolina. In 1702, Governor Moore of South Carolina, rashly undertook an expedition against St. Augustine, a Spanish town in East Florida; the plan was disconcerted by the arrival of two Spanish ships and abandoned, in a cowardly manner. As the colony then did not contain more than seven or eight thousand white people, the expenses of the expedition were too considerable to be defrayed by an ordinary tax; and the colony issued bills of credit for the purpose. This was the first experiment. As the sum was not large, the bills answered a good purpose, and for some years retained their value. But the war against the Tuscaroras and other savages in 1712, creating another heavy debt, the colony issued forty thousand pounds, which was lent on landed or personal security, and made payable into the treasury in ten instalments of four thousand pounds each. This sum was so large that the value speedily sunk one half, and ultimately to one seventh. The depreciation caused great uneasiness—the planters paying their debts to their creditors and the merchants, in a medium of less value than gold and silver. The rate of exchange remained at seven for one, until measures were taken to redeem the bills.

Of the Bills of Credit in New York and Pennsylvania. The first issuing of a paper currency in New York, was in 1709, and the occasion was the great expense of the fruitless preparations for attacking Canada, in that year. The sums first issued were not large, and such regulations were adopted for redeeming the paper, as to prevent, in a great measure, the evils of depreciation. Considerable sums were afterwards emitted, and gradually called into the treasury and cancelled. In 1722, Pennsylvania issued her first paper currency, amounting to fifteen thousand pounds—by subsequent emissions the sum was augmented to eighty thousand pounds, which sum was extant in 1740. This paper was made a legal tender; so that creditors were obliged to take it as gold and silver. As it sub-

ferred some depreciation, the proprietaries were alarmed for fear they should receive their rents in a depreciated medium ; and opposed the emission of paper until the assembly had made them a grant to secure to them the full value of their rents in sterling money.

General Remarks on Bills of Credit. All the colonies sooner or later issued bills of credit to supply the place of specie, which was scarce and not sufficient for a current medium. In those colonies where the paper was immediately called in by taxes and duties, it depreciated but little ; in others, it sunk to a low value ; and gave debtors an opportunity to defraud their creditors, by paying them in a depreciated currency. As the paper could not circulate in foreign countries, it would not answer for a remittance for goods imported ; merchants of course preferred specie to paper, and gold and silver rose in value. In short, a paper currency while the country was rapidly settling, and its trade restricted, was very useful in many respects ; but it also produced great evils. It gave rise to unceasing jealousy and contentions, between the royal and proprietary governors and the assemblies of the colonies ; for the governors strenuously opposed the issuing of paper. Had the colonies been indulged in a free trade, they would have had gold and silver enough ; but an unrestrained commerce could not be enjoyed, until the colonies became independent.

Of the Origin of the different Rates of Coin in the Colonies. For almost a century after the settlement of America, the English colonies rated coins in sterling money, as in Great Britain. But the scarcity of money finally called for a remedy, and some of the colonies attempted to remove the difficulty, by passing laws to raise the nominal value of foreign coins. This occasioned a royal proclamation, in the sixth year of Queen Ann, A. D. 1708, which fixed the current nominal value of coins in the colonies, at one fourth above the nominal value in sterling money ; so that a

dollar, which was four shillings and sixpence sterling, passed for six shillings. In New England and Virginia, this became and still remains, the current denomination. But in some of the colonies, the depreciation of their paper currency, the scarcity of money, and the current rate of exchange between paper and specie, raised the nominal value of silver and gold still higher. In New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Maryland, the value of the dollar was established and continues at seven shillings and sixpence; in New York and North Carolina, at eight shillings. In South Carolina and Georgia, it rose only to four and eight pence; or two pence in the dollar above the sterling value. But these are differences merely in name, for the real value is the same in all the states; in other words the pound and the shilling differ in value, but not the dollar.

SECTION XI.

PIRACY.

Of piracy in the American Seas.

IN the two first centuries, after the Spaniards settled in America, the land and the sea were infested by pirates and freebooters, to a degree never before known in the civilized world. These robbers had their origin among some miserable fugitives of the French nation, who had begun a plantation in St. Kitts, and being dispossessed by the Spaniards, fled to the northern part of Hispaniola. There they lived at first by hunting swine and cattle which abounded in the mountains, and there acquired the name of *bucaneers*, from the practice of drying and preserving their beef and pork, called in French, *boucaner*. After living some time in this manner, some of them became cultivators; others betook themselves to piracy. Many of them settled on the island, Tortuga, near the coast of His-

paniola; and being accustomed to an unrestrained equality, they lived in a state of democracy, every man being the master of his own family; the commander of a boat or ship was liable to be discarded by the crew, and in a division of the plunder, he had only a single share like a private, unless given to him as a gratuity.

Of the Ravages of the Buccaneers. These lawless freebooters fortified themselves in Tortuga; and forming themselves into small companies, sallied forth in quest of plunder by sea and land. They had a special antipathy to the Spaniards, and when they found a ship alone, they boldly grappled and boarded her; usually putting all the crew to death. When loaded with plunder, they returned and divided it with the most scrupulous justice; then spent their time in all kinds of vice and debauchery, until their booty was expended. Enjoying a perfect state of liberty and equality, there was no law to restrain their excesses, and when their plunder was gone, they were reduced to want and misery—They then went forth to seek more plunder, and pillage honest and industrious men. At length, their number was so increased by desperate fellows from France, Holland and England, that they became formidable to all Spanish America. They composed an army of twelve hundred men, and attacked several Spanish towns on the continent, murdering the people, and plundering the houses. In 1697, they took Carthagena, and effects to the value of seven or eight millions of dollars; but on their return, they met a fleet of Dutch and English ships, which took and sunk a number of theirs. This gave them a check from which they never recovered. They were hunted by the nations of Europe, and partly by force and partly by encouragements to cultivation, this nest of villains was destroyed.

Of Piracies on the American Coast. The spirit of piracy extended in a greater or less degree to the East Indies, and to the North American colonies. About

the year 1699, one Bradish a boatswains mate, in an English ship bound to India, in an illegal voyage, conspired with the crew, left the captain on an island, and turned pirate. Coming to America to deposit his spoil, Bradish was taken, sent prisoner to England and executed. One Kidd was still more notorious. This man was master of a vessel and sailed from New-York, where he had a family. Being in London, he was selected, upon recommendation, to command a ship fitted out for the express purpose of suppressing piracies in India. But he turned pirate himself, sailed to India and there begun the practice of robbing. Returning to America, he landed and appeared openly at Boston, where he was taken, sent to England, and executed. The trade of Carolina suffered greatly by a nest of pirates settled at New Providence which became a receptacle of vagabonds, after the proprietors of Carolina had released their right to the Bahamas to a company of merchants. The gulf of Florida was at their command, and the trade to the West Indies was almost ruined. The ministry in England charged the colonies with harboring those lawless rascals; but without foundation. After many years, and great exertions, the seas were cleared of freebooters.

SECTION XII.

DISEASES AND REMARKABLE EVENTS.

Of the Diseases that afflicted the Colonies and other remarkable Events.

THE first settlers in America had to contend with hardships, scarcity of provisions, a degree of cold in winter and heat in summer, which they had not experienced in Europe, and with the diseases of the country, to which were added such as rose from their wants and toil. In 1620, half of the Plymouth set-

tlers died, and in 1630, the colony of Massachusetts lost more than one hundred, by fevers and the scurvy. In 1633, the colony of Plymouth lost twenty of its inhabitants, by an epidemic pestilential fever. In 1635, the mortality in Virginia, by the accounts then received in New England, extended to eighteen hundred persons.—On the first of June 1638, was a severe convulsion of the earth; called the great earthquake. This was succeeded by a general prevalence of the small pox and fevers, on which account, a general fast was observed in December. Shocks of the earth were repeated at times, till December, when they were frequent. Two tremendous storms happened, the same year, one in August and the other in December, in which the tide rose fourteen feet above spring tides, at Narraganset, and flowed twice in six hours. Another tempest equally severe occurred on the 10th of March, old style, in 1639, and such a rain that the Connecticut rose twenty feet above the meadows.

Continuation of remarkable Events. On the fifth of March 1643, was another violent earthquake in New England; but no damage was sustained. The preceding summer had been wet and cold; crops of corn were indifferent; English grain had suffered in an unusual degree, by wild regions; and in winter, the barns were infested by such numbers of mice, as were never before known. These animals were so numerous as to eat the bark of the fruit trees, about the roots, under the snow. These causes occasioned a dearth, and many families, their corn being exhausted in April, were compelled to live on clams and fish. In 1647 happened the first influenza mentioned in the annals of America. It extended to the West Indies, where it was immediately followed by a malignant fever, so fatal and infectious as to be called the plague. In Barbadoes and St. Kitts, it swept away five or six thousand people; seizing first the most hale, robust men. This is the first distinct account of the epidem-

ic yellow fever, mentioned in our histories. A pestilential fever prevailed in Hartford, the same year, of which died the Rev. Mr. Hooker.

Continuation of remarkable Events. A slight earthquake was felt in New England in October 1653. Some general sickness prevailed in Massachusetts; for in the spring of the next year, a fast was appointed in Connecticut, for which one reason assigned, in the proclamation was "the mortality which had been among the people of Massachusetts." In 1655, another influenza spread over New England. In 1658 epidemic disease again prevailed, on which account, and the scarcity of grain and intemperate season, a fast was observed in Connecticut. In 1659, the disease called rattles, hives, or croop first appeared in the colonies. In 1662 happened in New England, an earthquake, a severe drouth, and epidemic disease; on the abatement of which our pious ancestors kept a day of thanksgiving. In 1668, a malignant sickness prevailed in New York and occasioned the appointment of a fast in September. In 1677 the small pox raged in Charlestown, in Massachusetts, with the mortality of the plague; and in the following year, it prevailed in Boston.

Continuation of remarkable Events. In 1683, great sickness prevailed, and the people sought the throne of grace by a general fast. During the winter, a fever so general and so fatal prevailed in Springfield in Massachusetts, that the public worship on Sundays was suspended.—A similar disease afflicted the same town in 1711, in 1733 and 1761. It raged at Hartford in 1717: Fairfield suffered equally by a malignant fever in 1698 after the influenza—Waterbury in 1713—Bethlem in 1750 and 1760—East Haven was repeatedly visited, and stripped of a great part of its most robust men. The last time, was in 1761. This violent fever prevailed in many other places, with great mortality, but has not been epidemic since 1761. In 1702 New York was sorely visited with a pestilential fever—almost all the patients died. Philadelphia and

Charleston, in S. Carolina suffered by a like disease in 1699. On the 29th of October 1727 occurred an earthquake in New England, as violent as any of the former ones. Slighter shocks are not infrequent. On the 18th of November 1755, happened a shock of similar violence, but no injury was sustained.

Continuation of Remarkable Events. The influenza prevailed in 1733, and spread over the world. In 1735 commenced the scarlet fever, or malignant sore throat, at Kingston, an inland town in New Hampshire, and visited most parts of America, in that and the following year. This was its first appearance in America, as far as could be recollected. Before that period, the usual form of disease in the throat, was that of a quincy, which was often malignant and fatal. From the year 1735 to 1800, the malignant sore throat was epidemic, six times, in the northern states. The influenza from 1732 to 1800 prevailed nine times, as an epidemic. The long fever, so called because it continued thirty or forty days, was formerly very common in New England, but has almost disappeared in the older settlements.

Of unusual Seasons. The seasons in all countries, in the temperate climates, are very variable. The winter of 1633—4 was mild—the wind mostly from the southward, with little snow till February, and no great frost. That was followed by cold winters, and in 1637 or 8, the winter was noted as unusually severe; the snow lay about four feet deep from the middle of November to the first week in April. But the winter of 1641—2 was of the severest kind—Boston bay was a bridge of ice as far as the eye could see—and the Chesopeek also was frozen. The Indians told our ancestors that such a winter had not been in forty years. A similar winter occurred in 1697—8. The fourteenth day of December O. S. 1709 was supposed to be the coldest day that had then been known in America. In February 1717 fell the greatest snow ever known in this, or perhaps any country. It covered

lower doors of houses, so that some people were obliged to step out of their chamber windows on snow shoes. There was also a terrible tempest. Eleven hundred sheep, belonging to one man, perished. One flock of a hundred, was dug out of a snow drift on Fisher's island, where they had been buried to the depth of sixteen feet. This was twenty eight days after the storm, when two of them were found alive, having subsisted on the wool of the others, and they sustained no injury.

Continuation of Unusual Seasons. A memorable tempest is recorded to have happened on the 24th of February 1723, which raised the tide several feet above the usual spring tides, and did incredible damage on the eastern shore of New England. The winter of 1737—8 was extremely severe; but far less severe than that which closed the year 1740. A similar winter followed the summer of 1779, when all the rivers and bays, even the Chesapeake, were converted into bridges of ice. The severe cold was of three months duration, and the snow from three to four feet deep. Mild winters also occur frequently—as in 1755 and 6—1774—5—1794—5—and 1801—2 when there was little frost and snow.

Of Days of unusual Obscurity or Darkness. Historians have mentioned many instances of extreme darkness, in the day time, and in some cases, this obscurity has lasted several days. Instances happened in Europe, in the years 252, 746—and 775. The first instance mentioned in our annals was on the 21st of October 1716—the second on the 9th of August 1732.—A similar obscurity happened in Canada and on the Lakes, on the 19th of October 1762; and on three different days in October 1785. On the 19th of May 1780, a memorable darkness was spread over all the northern states. The obscurity was occasioned by a thick vapor or cloud, tinged with a yellow color or faint red, and a thin coat of dust was deposited on white substances. In these instances, the obscurity

was so great as to render candles or lamps necessary at noon day. The darkness in Canada was followed by squalls of wind, severe thunder—and in one instance by a meteor or fire ball. So ignorant were most people of this phenomenon, that many were excessively frightened; altho it had occurred three times at least within the period of sixty five years.

Of the Northern Lights. From the earliest times, we have some imperfect accounts of lights in the sky; and superstition has represented them as the forerunners of bloody wars and other calamities. Sometimes historians speak of them as troops of men, armed and rushing to battle. Such representations are the effusions of weak and timid minds; these lights and all others in the atmosphere proceeding from natural causes, are no more the harbingers of evil than a shower of rain or a blast of wind. For about three hundred years past, our accounts of the northern lights, are tolerably correct. There was a discontinuance of them eighty or ninety years, anterior to 1707, when a small light was seen by persons in Europe. But they did not reappear, in full splendor, till the year 1716, when they were observed in England. Their first appearance in America was December 11, 1719, when they were remarkably bright, and as people in general had never heard of such a phenomenon, they were extremely alarmed, with the apprehension of the approach of the final judgment. All amusements, all business, and even sleep was interrupted, for want of a little knowledge of history. From 1719 to 1790, these lights were frequent, when they again disappeared, for a long period.

Of Diseases among the Brutes. The brutes have at times pestilential diseases which sweep them away in multitudes. A plague among cattle destroyed a great part of the species in Germany about the year 800. The same happened in Italy and Germany, in 1713, among cattle and horses. A like mortality among cattle happened in Holland and some parts of England.

in 1751. Fortunately, no similar plague among useful animals has ever happened in America; altho at times, there has been considerable mortality among horses and cattle. In 1514, the cats in Europe perished by a pestilential disease, as they did lately in Europe and America, in 1797. In 1763, dogs, sheeps, mules, poultry, swine and horses, in several countries of Europe, were swept away by unusual diseases. In 1764, the blue fish all perished or abandoned the shores of Nantucket, where they had always been in great plenty. In 1775 the oysters at Wellfleet, on Cape Cod all perished, and have never since grown on the same banks. In 1788, the cod fish on the grand bank of Newfoundland were mostly thin and ill flavored. In 1789, the haddock, on the coast of Norway, mostly or all died, and floating on the surface, covered many leagues of water. In 1799, the small fish on the coast of North Carolina shared a like fate. At times, oysters are found to be watry, sickly and ill flavored; dogs, wolves and foxes are affected with madness—and the wild fowls perish by epidemic diseases.

SECTION XIII.

CONTROVERSIES AND THEIR EFFECTS.

Of the Evils of Dissensions among the Colonies.

THE most fruitful source of public evils among the American colonies, was, the want of union and concert of measures, proceeding from their jealousies and different views and interests. Each colony exercised a separate jurisdiction over a certain tract of land, and so jealous was each of its rights, that blood was shed in defending a claim to an exclusive trade in beaver on a particular river, when millions of that animal were to be found in the unoccupied wilderness. Uncertain boundaries also originated numerous contro-

verfies, and litigations, which excited no fmall degree of animofity among the colonies, fome of which lafted more than a hundred years. The antipathy between Rhode Ifland and the other colonies, on account of differences in religious and civil matters, and in morals had fcarcely fubfided at the revolution.

Of the Effects of Diffenfions in the Defense of the Colonies. The ill effect of a want of union was firft felt, in 1637, in the Pequot war. Three governments were to be confulted, and altho all agreed in the neceffity of reducing the Pequots, yet for want of unity of power and effort, the Connecticut forces arrived firft at the field of action, and to prevent notice of their arrival from reaching the Indians, they were obliged to attack the fort alone; and altho they fucceeded beyond expectation, yet it was a desperate attempt and might have been fatal to the affailants. Had the colonies been under the fame jurifdiction, the troops might have been affembled at the fame time, and acted with united force. In 1694, the commiffioners of the united colonies declared war againft Ninigrate, a Narraganfet chief; and their forces were entrusted to the command of Major Willard of Maffachufetts, who marched into the enemy's country, but did nothing effectual, and returned on frivolous pretexts.—It was owing to the averfion of Maffachufetts to the war that the plan of the colonies was frustrated. In 1676, during Philip's war, the colonies determined on fubduing the Narraganfets; but the people of Rhode Ifland, who were moft expofed, left their fettlements to be defended by the troops of the other colonies, and did not join in the attack and reduction of the fort.

Of the want of Concert in other Expeditions. The united colonies, Maffachufetts, Plymouth and Connecticut, were zealoufly engaged in one common caufe, during the war with Philip and his associates. But the troops of each, acting often at a diftance, under feparate commanders, often failed to afford affiftance to parties, forts or towns in diftrefs; for want

a unity of councils and designs. Many whole towns and whole companies of men would probably have been saved, if one will had directed all their operations. Capt. Lathrop and his company, who fell into an ambuscade, between Deerfield and Hadley, and were cut to pieces, would have escaped, but for want of union and concert of measures; for two or three companies were within a few miles, marching to join them.

Of the weakness of the Confederation of 1643. Altho the union of the four infant settlements produced very good effects, by giving them harmony of councils, and strength of action, yet it was not sufficient to prevent jealousies, divisions, and the consequent evils. Springfield, when first settled, was supposed to be under the jurisdiction of Connecticut, but was afterwards claimed by Massachusetts, and until the divisional line was run, a controversy subsisted between the colonies on that account. But a more serious dispute arose on account of a duty which Connecticut imposed on goods, belonging to Springfield, exported from the river; which duty was applied to the maintenance of a fort at Saybrook, to protect the river settlements, especially against the Dutch. The question, concerning the right to lay the duty, agitated the colonies, and when the commissioners decided in favor of Connecticut, Massachusetts, by way of retaliation, laid a similar duty on goods, passing the fort in Boston harbor. This law did not escape the censure of the commissioners, but the confederacy had no power to restrain these differences.

Of the Weakness of the Confederation continued. In the year 1653, the commissioners of the colonies took into consideration, the question of making war on the Dutch, who had driven the New Haven settlers from the lands they had purchased on the Delaware, and burnt their fort; who had constantly sold arms and ammunition to the savages, which exposed the colonies to extirpation; and who, on the rupture between

England and Holland, had attempted to engage the Indians in a plot to destroy the English. The commissioners of Plymouth, Connecticut and New Haven agreed on the necessity of a war to put a stop to such outrages and a dangerous conspiracy ; but those of Massachusetts opposed it, and no arguments or powers of persuasion availed. The legislature of Massachusetts denied the authority of the commissioners to declare war ; alleging that each colony was a sovereignty, and could not be subject to another sovereign power. The other colonies held this to be a direct violation of the articles of union—but the confederation was a rope of sand. The savages continued to purchase arms and ammunition of the Dutch ; and by the time of Philip's war, they were well furnished and well acquainted with arms. This proved the principal cause of that war and its horrors.

Of the fatal Effects of Disunion in 1690. On the accession of king William to the throne of England, a plan was formed in New England to take Canada. Commissioners from the colonies met at New York and agreed upon a plan of operations. A fleet under Sir William Phips was to sail from Boston to Quebec, and a body of troops from Connecticut and New York was to advance by land to the lakes and Montreal. The fleet arrived before Quebec, tho late in the season ; but the land forces, after proceeding to the lake, were obliged to retreat for want of canoes, and provisions. These articles were to be furnished by a commissary of New York ; but he failed. The colony of New-York was distracted with factions under the usurpation of Lesser. General Winthrop, who commanded the forces, was blamed for retreating ; but was fully exculpated by a court of inquiry. In truth, the plan of cooperation with the fleet was frustrated for want of a common head or government over the colonies, which would have given union, concert and energy to the whole system of measures. There is no doubt

but the French would have been expelled from Canada or totally subdued in the reign of king William or queen Ann, had it not been for the division of the Americans into small sovereignties.

Of the want of Concert in 1745. When the projected expedition against Lewisburg was proposed to the colonies, as far south as Pennsylvania, they all declined giving assistance except Connecticut, New Hampshire and Rhode Island; and the latter deliberated so long, that her troops did not arrive, till after the garrison had surrendered: So that the troops of three colonies only, of which Massachusetts furnished four fifths, were employed in that important service. In short, nothing prevented the expulsion of the French from Canada sixty or seventy years sooner than it happened; but the weakness of the colonies, resulting from a division of their power, and the jealousy of their councils. And it is very evident that in those seventy years, the French, and Indians in their employment, killed twenty thousand men, women and children; which has greatly retarded the population of the northern states. Had Canada been conquered in 1690, and retained under the British government, it is probable this part of America, would have had, in the year 1800, two hundred thousand inhabitants, beyond the present number.

END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.

A Chronological Table of the most remarkable Events, in or respecting America, intended as the outline of American History.

<i>Anno Dom.</i>	
THE king of Spain granted a commission to Christopher Columbus, a Genoese, for making discoveries,* April 30	1492
Columbus sailed from Palos in Spain Aug. 3; first observed the variation of the needle Sept. 14, discovered Guanahana now Cat-Island, one of the Bahamas, October 12 O. S. 23d. N. 8.	
Columbus discovered Cuba Oct. 27, O. S. and Hayti, which he called Hispaniola or little Spain, December 6, O. S.	
Columbus built a fort at Navidad in Hayti, where he left 3. officers and 38 men, and sailed to Spain	1493
Pope Alexander granted to Spain all the lands west of a line 100 leagues west of the Azores, May 4	
Second voyage of Columbus, Sept. 25	
Columbus built Isabella on the north side of Hayti, December	1493
Columbus discovered Porto Rico in the second voyage, and Jamaica May 4	1494
John Cabot, a Venetian by birth, but residing at Bristol in Eng. sailed under a commission from Henry VII. and discovered Prima Vista or Newfoundland	1494 or 5
* His real name was Christoval Colon, which was latinized into Christopher Columbus.	
Bartholomew Columbus, governor of Isabella, built New Isabella on the south side of Hayti and on the east bank of the river Ozama, to which he removed the colony	1496
Ch. Columbus returned to Spain, March	1496
Henry VII. granted a commission to John Cabot and his three sons, Lewis, Sebastian and Sanctius, to make discoveries of unknown countries, and to erect the king's banners on lands which they had already discovered, March 5	1496
King Henry gave a license to John Cabot to take six vessels from any port, for making discoveries, Feb. 5	1498
Sebastian Cabot sailed to America, discovered the land afterwards named Labrador, June 11, O. S. [22d.] and ranged along the coast to Florida.—He was the first discoverer of the American continent	1497 or 1498
Ch. Columbus sailed from Spain on his third voyage May 30, discovered Trinidad July 31, and the continent now Terra Firma, August 1	1498
Ojeda who was with Columbus in his first voyage accompanied by Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine, sailed from Spain May 20th, and in June discovered the continent of S. America, and Ameri-	

- go had the address to give the continent his name
- 1499 Vincent Y. Pinzon failed southward, discovered the great river Marañon which he called Amazon
- 1500 Pedro A. Cabral, a Portuguese, discovered the coast now called Brasil
- Bovadilla appointed governor of America, sent Columbus to Spain in chains, Aug. 23
- Cortereal, a Portuguese, failed to Newfoundland and gave name to Labrador
- The town of New Isabella being destroyed by a hurricane, was rebuilt on the west side of Ozama. The name was afterward changed to St. Domingo, and this is the oldest town in America
- 1502 Columbus being acquitted, failed on his 4th voyage June 3, arrived at Hayti June 29, failed to the continent, discovered the bay of Honduras, also named Porto Bello, Aug. to Nov.
- Columbus shipwrecked on Jamaica
- 1503 Columbus relieved after being almost a year on Jamaica, arrived at Hayti, and failed for Spain Sept. 2, arrived at St. Lucar in December
- Adventurers from Biscay and the north of France began a fishery on the banks of Newfoundland
- Columbus died at Valladolid aged 58, May 20
- The sugar cane introduced into Hayti from the Canary islands about this time
- J. D. de Solis, and V. Y. Pinzon discovered the great river Paraguay, called also river of plate or silver
- 1508 Africans first introduced into Hayti for slaves
- Ojeda and Nicuesa began a settlement at the gulf of Darien. Ovando settled Porto Rico, and Esquivel began a settlement on Jamaica
- 1510 John Ponce de Leon discovered and named Florida, from its being discovered Easter Day or east of flowers
- 1512 Vasco Nunez de Balboa discovered the South sea on Pacific Ocean
- 1513 J. de Grijalva discovered Mexico and named it New Spain
- 1518 Fernando Cortez failed to Mexico, March 1519, after severe contests subdued Mexico August 21,
- 1521 Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese, in the service of Spain, entered the strait now called by his name, Nov. 11, 1520, proceeded to the Phillippines where he was killed; but one of his ships arrived in Spain in 1522—this being the first voyage round the globe
- 1504 Pizarro, with Almagro and Luque invaded Peru
- 1532 Pizarro founded St. Michael, the first Spanish colony in Peru
- 1562 Pizarro took Cuzco, the capital of Peru, after having taken Atahualpa, the Inca, and put him to

death		Florida and massacred the Spaniards, and Florida was abandoned	1568
P. Mendoza sailed to the Paraguay with 2000 men, built Buenos Ayres, and and first introduced horses, which have multiplied beyond calculation	1533	M. Frobisher attempted to find a N. West passage, discovered the strait of his name	1576
Ferdinand de Soto landed in Florida with 900 men, 1539, penetrated to the Chickasaw country, crossed the Mississippi where he died May 21, 1542, the remains of his men arrived in Mexico in 1543		Pestilence in Mexico, by which died, as appeared by registers, 2 millions of persons. Sir Walter Raleigh obtained a patent for making discoveries, March 25	1584
Orellana entered the river Marañon and descended to its mouth	1541	Amidas and Barlow, by order of Sir W. Raleigh, landed on Wocokon and Roanoke, July. On their return, the Queen gave to the country, the name Virginia; tho the places where they landed are now in N. Carolina	
Chili conquered by the Spaniards		Sir W. Raleigh sent Sir R. Greenville with 7 vessels to settle Virginia—a small colony left at Roanoke under Gov. Lane Aug.	1585
The mines of Potosi discovered	1545	J. Davis sailed to the strait of his name	
Pestilence in Peru, in Mexico 800,000 persons perished	1546	Gov. Lane and the colony return to Eng. with Sir F. Drake, who had been on an expedition against the Spanish settlements in America	1586
Ribaud with French protestants, began a settlement on the Edisto; but the people abandoned the place, and on their return, some perished by famine		Gov. Lane carried tobacco to England	
John Hawkins began the slave trade of the English	1562	J. Davis, in his third voyage, discovered and named Cumberland islands	1587
Fandonier sailed with 3 ships to relieve Ribaud; but stopped at May river, now St. John's, built a fort called Caroline	1563	Sir R. Greenville left a second colony at Roanoke in 1586, which was destroyed by the natives	
Ribaud failed to Florida; took a part of the men from fort Caroline to oppose a Spanish fleet; Melandez, a Spanish officer, arrived, massacred most of the French, and garrisoned the place with Spaniards	1564	A third colony under Gov. White left at Roanoke—Gov. White returned to Eng. for supplies	1588
Gourge, a Gascon, failed to	1565		

- Sir W. Raleigh assigned his patent to Gov. White, Thos. Smith and others, March 7 1589
- Gov. White returned to Roanoke, but not finding the settlers, went to the W. Indies, and finally to England 1590
- Whale fishery begun by the English 1593
- Sir W. Raleigh made a voyage to Guiana, burnt St. Joseph in Trinidad—sailed into the Oronoke 1595
- Barthol. Golsnold came to America, named Cape Cod, landed on Cuttawhunk, and began to build, but returned 1602
- Samuel Champlain, sailed up the St. Lawr. 1602
- The Sieur de Mont, with Champlain for a pilot explored the coast of Acadia, entered the Bay of Fundy, named the river Wogondy, St. John, built a fort and passed the winter on St. Croix, an island in the Sebouduc 1604—5
- De Mont settled Port Royal, now Annapolis, the first settlement in Nova Scotia 1605
- Virginia divided and by letters patent, the southern part was granted to Sir Thomas Gates and others, called the London company, the northern part to the Plymouth company, April 10 1606
- Capt. Newport, arrived in Virginia and began the first colonial settlement on the river Powhatan [James] called Jamestown, April 26 1607
- Capt. Smith first explored the Chesapeake 1607
- Quebec founded by Samuel Champlain 1608
- Mr. Robinson's church migrate to Holland 1609
- Second charter of Virginia to the earl of Salisbury and others, May 23 1609
- Mr. Robinson's church removed to Leyden 1610
- Capt. Hudson discovered the River Manhattan, now called by his name 1610
- Newfoundland settled under J. Gray, Gov. 1610
- Capt. Hudson discovered the bay which bears his name, his crew mutined and set him afloat in an open boat, and he perished 1610
- Champlain discovered and named Lake-Champlain 1610
- Third charter of Virg. extended to include Bermuda, 300 leagues to sea, March 12 1610
- Bermuda settled under gov. Meor 1610
- J. Rolfe married Pocahontas, daughter of Powhatan, April 1610
- Capt. Smith made a fishing voyage to the northern part of America, made a chart of the coast, which he presented to Prince Charles who gave the country the name of New England 1610
- A fort or trading house, built on the Hudson near Albany by the Dutch between 1610
- The Dutch lay claim to the discoveries of Hudson and settle Manhattan, now N. Y. 1610
- W. Bassin discovered the bay of his name 1610
- Great pestilence at Jamestown 1610

fever destroyed most of the Indians from Nara-		grant and erecting the	
ganfett to Penobscot	1618	Massachusetts company	
Capt. Dermer the first Eng-		into a corporation May 4	1629
lishman who sailed thro		Carolina granted to Sir Rob-	
Long-Island sound and		ert Heath Oct. 30	1629
Hellgate	1619	Charleston, Boston, Water-	
First colonial assembly in		town and Dorchester set-	
Virg. June 19		tled by Gov. Winthrop	
Mr. Robinson's people left		and others	1630
Holland in July and Eng-		Patent to Plymouth colony	
land in Sept. for Ameri-		from the council of Plym-	
ca, arrived in Nov. land-		outh Jan. 13	
ed at Plymouth Dec. 11.		The council of Plymouth	
O. S. 22 N. S.	1620	granted lands to settlers	
Charter of New Eng. gran-		on Pemaquid Feb. 29	1631
ted to the D. of Lenox		Patent of Connecticut from	
and others, or council of		the earl of Warwick	
Plymouth, Nov. 23		March 19	
The Indians massacred		First vessel built in Massa-	
of the Virginians, March		chusetts, called the <i>Bles-</i>	
22	1622	<i>ing of the Bay</i> , launched	
First settlement of New		July 4	
Hampshire at Little Har-		Grant of Maryland to lord	
bor on the Piscataway		Baltimore June 20	1632
and at Dover	1623	Montserrat and Antigua set-	
St. Christopher's discovered		tled by the Eng. and St.	
by Columbus and called		Eustacia by the Dutch	
by his name, 1493, was		The Dutch built a fort on	
settled by T. Warner,		the west bank of the Con-	
Jan.		necticut, in the present	
The first cattle brought into		town of Hartford	1633
New England	1624	The Plymouth people, af-	
Barbadoes granted to Sir		ter the Dutch, erected a	
William Courteen, and		trading house on the west	
settled		bank of the Con. in the	
Cape Ann settled		present town of Windsor	
The Virg. company dissol-		O&.	
ved and their charter re-		First settlement in Mary-	
sued by the crown		land at St. Mary's	
The king granted Barbadoes		The council of Plymouth	
to the earl of Carlisle	1627	surrendered their Char-	
Grant of Mass. from the		ter to the crown June 11	
council of Plym. March		First Assembly in Mary-	
19	1628	land convened in Feb.	
Nevis settled by the Eng. ish	1628	1633 divided into two	
Salem settled by Gov. Endi-		branches 1639	
cott		Wethersfield the oldest	
Charter from the crown		town in Con. settled by	
confirming the Plymouth		people from Watertown,	
		Mass.	1634

Windfor settled by people from Dorchester	1635	First assembly of Rhode Isl. and agreed upon a body of laws, May 19	1647
Saybrook settled by J. Winthrop's men Nov.		Marigalante, settled by the French	
Martinico and Guadaloupe settled by the French, also Cayenne		First influenza mentioned in Amer. annals	
Hartford settled by Mr. Hooker and his congregation from Newtown, Cambridge, Mass.	1635—6	Pestilential yellow fever swept away several thousand of the inhabitants of Barbadoes and St. Kitts	1647-8
Roger Williams settled and named Prov.	1636	St. Bartholomew settled by the French	1648
The Pequots destroyed by Connecticut, May 26	1637	Massachusetts laws first published	
Rhode Island settled by Mr. Coddington, March 24 ;		Cambridge platform composed and adopted	
Great earthquake June 1	1638	Anguilla settled by the English	1650
New-Haven settled by Mr. Davenport &c. Ap.		Grenada settled by the French	1652
St. Lucia first settled by the English, dispossessed by the natives	1641	The English took and settled Dominico	1661
Newport settled	1639	Translation of the N. Testament into Indian by Mr. Eliot finished and printed	
Maine granted to Sir F. Gorges, April 3		Charles II. granted a charter to Connecticut incorporating New Haven with it, April 23	1662
First printing press established at Cam. Mass.		Charles II. confirmed the charter of Massachusetts by letter, June 28	
Original constitution of Connecticut established, Jan. 14		Charter granted to Rhode-Island and Providence-Plantations, July 8	
Surinam settled by the French 1640 ; who abandoned it for its insalubrity, 1641, the English then took possession		A great earthquake in Canada and New-England, Jan. 26.	1663
A code of laws first established in Mass.		Grant of Carolina to the Earl of Clarendon and 7 others, March 24	
New Hamp. united with Mass. April 14	1641	This grant enlarged by a new charter, June	1663
Confederation of Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut and New-Haven for defense.	1643	First settlement in N. Carolina on Chowan, about the middle of this century	
The French settled St. Bartholomews		New-Haven consented to a union with Connecticut.	
The earl of Warwick incorporated the settlers of Prov. Newport &c.	1644		
March 14			

December	1664	called Charlestown	1680
Mr. Eliot's Indian bible completed and printed		Fort Frontenac built, Marquette and Joliet sail down the Mississippi	1673
New Netherlands taken from the Dutch and granted to the Duke of York by patent, March 12, and called New-York.—		N. York taken by the Dutch 1673, restored and confirmed to the English by treaty	1674
Fort Orange taken and called Albany		Connecticut laws revised in 1672, and first printed by Mr. Green at Cambridge	1675
The Duke of York released to Lord Berkley and Sir G. Carteret, the territory now New Jersey, June 24		Indian war in N. England under Phillip	
Sir J. Yeamans settled on the southern banks of Cape Fear River with a colony from Barbadoes	1665	War ceased by the death of Phillip, Aug. 12	1676
Antigua, which had been abandoned by the first settlers, granted to Lord Willoughby in 1663 and settled		Bacon's insurrection in Virginia, Jamestown burnt by the insurgents, death of Bacon	1676 to 1677
New-Providence, which had been dispeopled by the Spaniards in 1641, again settled in 1666, again deserted till 1690, settled and again depopulated by the Spaniards in 1705, re-peopled in 1718		N. Hampshire erected into a royal gov.	1679
First colonial Assembly of the settlers at Chowan, now North Carolina, mentioned on record	1666	Charter of Penn. to Wm. Penn, March 4	1681
Massachusetts resumed the gov. of Maine	1668	First form of gov. for Penn. April 25	1682
Capt. Sayle with a colony began a plantation at Port Royal in Carolina, he died		The Duke of York's deed of Pennsylvania to Penn, Aug. 21	
This colony removed and began a settlement on the bank of Ashley river under Sir J. Yeamans which was called old Charlestown	1670	The Duke's deed of a tract of 12 miles from New-Castle to the Hoarkills, Aug. 24	
The inhabitants removed and began the town now	1671	First assembly in the province at Chester, December 4	
		A& of union annexing the Delaware counties to Penn. A& of settlement Dec. 6.	
		First settlement of Philadelphia, Oct.	
		Charters of Mass. and Rhode Island vacated	1684
		Albany incorporated, Port Royal in Carolina broke up by the Spaniards	1686
		The first episc. church in Boston formed	
		A charter given to New-York, by Gov. Dongan.	

Chronological Table.

- April 22, 1686; enlarged and confirmed Jan. 15, 1730; again Oct. 14, 1732
- Process issued against Connecticut charter in 1685, but the charter was hid from Andros in a hollow oak and saved
- Andros seized, deposed and sent to England 1687
- Expedition to Quebec failed Oct. and Nov. 1689
- First bills of credit issued by Massachusetts 1690
- Schenectady burnt and the inhabitants slain or starved, Feb. 8 1690
- Massachusetts obtained a new charter, by which Plymouth was annexed to that colony 1691
- Mild winter, vessels went to Alb. in Feb. 1692-3
- Severe winter, loaded sleds passed on the ice from Boston to Nantasket, and on the Delaware 1697
- Fatal ye low fever in Philadelphia 1699
- Charleston S. C. depopulated by a tempest and inundation, followed by small pox and yellow fever, a great part of the town burnt
- Library established in Charleston S. C. 1700
- Charter of Philadelphia Oct. 25, charter of privileges for Penn. Oct. 28
- Culture of silk and cotton introduced into Carolina about this time
- Silent yellow fever in New-York 1702
- Introduced into Car. from Madagascar
- Field burnt and the inhabitants slain, taken captives or dispersed Feb. 28 1704
- Expedition by the New Eng. people against Port Royal failed 1707
- A projected invasion of Canada failed, no naval force arrived, and Nicholson's troops, at Wood Creek, becoming sickly, returned 1709
- Port Royal taken by Gen. Nicholson and its name changed to Annapolis, Oct. 2 1710
- Post offices in America first established 1710
- Congress of governors at New-London to consult on an expedition to Canada, May 1 1712
- An expedition against Quebec failed by the shipwreck of transports in St. Lawrence, August 1712
- The Tuscaroras attacked N. Carolina, defeated by Col. Barnwell, migrated to the five nations, and formed a sixth tribe 1712
- Iron began to be manufactured in Virginia 1712
- Spanish invasion of S. Carolina defeated
- Treaty of peace at Utrecht, April 11.—Nova Scotia ceded to France 1713
- Conspiracy and invasion of the Yamasse defeated by Gov. Craven and Carolinians 1713
- The greatest snow storm ever known. Snow several feet deep, Feb. 1717
- Combination against the proprietary govt. in Carolina and a revolution 1719
- Northern lights which had disappeared for almost a century appeared in N. England Dec. 11

- Epidemic small pox in Boston—inoculation first introduced by Dr. Boylston, at the recommendation of Dr. C. Mather 1721
- First news paper printed in New-York by Wm. Bradford 1725
- Printing introduced into Virginia by Wm. Parks 1726
- Dry summer followed by a violent earthquake, Oct. 19 O. S. 1727
- A tempest in Carolina inundated the low lands, drove the people into their upper rooms—the pestilential fever raged in Charleston 1728
- The proprietors of Carolina, except one, sold their property to the crown: the country was divided into S. and N. Carolina, and both became royal govern. 1730
- The first news paper in S. Carolina printed 1730
- Gen. Washington born in Westmoreland county, Virginia, Feb. 22 1732
- Georgia settled by Gen Oglethorpe 1733
- Origin of Free Masonry in America, July 1737
- Insurrection of the slaves in S. Carolina 1741—2
- Very severe winter 1742
- Spanish invasion of Georgia, failed 1742
- The library company of Phil. incorporated 1743
- This company was formed in 1731, and in 1776 received the Loganian library
- A large comet appeared in Dec. 1743
- Lewisburg surrendered to the N. England troops, aided by an English Squadron, June 17 1743
- Indigo plant discovered in S. Carolina 1743
- French expedition under D. Anville, which menaced N. Eng. failed by means of a storm, contagious fever in the fleet &c. 1746
- Expedition against Nova Scotia failed 1746-7
- Riots in Boston in opposition to an impressment of seamen 1747
- A library at Newport founded by A. Redwood 1747
- Treaty of peace at Aix La Chapelle by which Cape Breton and Lewisburg were restored to France Oct. 18. 1748
- Pennsylvania hospital established by act of assembly, Feb. 7 1751
- A tempest laid Charleston under water in Sept. 1752
- The proprietaries of Georgia surrendered their charter, and the colony became a royal government 1754
- Plan of a union of the Colonies agreed upon at Albany by commissioners—not sanctioned by the crown 1754
- Remarkably mild winters 1754-5 and 1755-6
- Great earthquake, Nov. 18 1753
- The French began to erect forts on the waters of Lake Erie and the Ohio 1752 & 1753
- Major Washington sent by Gov. Dinwiddie of Vir. to require the French to withdraw, Oct. and Nov. 1754
- The French erect fort Duquesne, where Pittsburg now stands 1754
- The French surprized and defeated by Col. Washington at the great mead-

- ows
Col. Washington and his troops in fort Neceffity surrendered to the French, July 4
Col. Washington appointed aiddecamp to Gen. Braddock, March 1755
Gen. Winflow with Massachusetts's troops took possession of Nova Scotia, June 1755, and the French inhabitants called Neutrals, were transplanted and their houses destroyed.
Gen. Braddock defeated and killed at Monongahela, July 9
French under Dieskau repulsed by Gen. Johnson at Lake George
War declared against France, May 18 1756
Oswego capitulated to Montcalm
Fort William Henry capitulated to the French 1757
Lewisburg taken by the British, June 1758
Gen. Abercrombie defeated at Ticonderoga with great loss, lord Howe killed July
Fort Frontenac taken by Col. Bradstreet, Aug.
Fort du Quesne abandoned by the French and taken by the English, Nov.
Ticonderoga and Crown Point taken by Gen. Amherst, July 27 and Aug. 4 1759
The French repulsed before Oswego by Col. Maldiman, July 25
Niagara taken by the English, Gen. Prideaux killed, July 25
Battle of Quebec, Gen. Wolfe and Montcalm killed, French defeated, Quebec capitulated, September
Montreal capitulated to the English, Sept. 8
Battle of Etchoe with the Cherokees 1760
The Cherokees defeated by Col. Grant and compelled to make peace, June 1761
Havanna taken by the British and provincials 1761
Definitive treaty of Peace signed at Paris, Feb. 10. 1763
The severest drouth known in America, no rain from May to Sept. 1764
An eruption of fire in Michuacan, began in 1764 continued several years and formed three mountains 6 miles in circuit, 1764 to 1766
Pestilential disease in Mexico so general as to prevent the gathering of the wheat 1767
Bennington the oldest town in Vermont settled 1767
Medical lectures first read in Philadelphia
First settlement in Tennessee 1767
Kentucky first settled by Col. Boon
Stamp act received the Royal assent Ma. 22 1767
Delegates from most of the colonies met at York in October, to remonstrate against the stamp act and petition for its repeal
Stamp act repealed March 18 1768
An act imposing a duty on tea, glass and painters colors imported into the colonies, passed June 1769

Two Brit. regiments arrived at Boston. Sept. 1768	Carolina defeated, February
Riot in Boston, the British troops fired upon the inhabitants and killed four March 5 1770	Boston evacuated by the British, March 17
Guatimala overthrown by an earthquake and 30,000 people buried in the ruins July 29 1773	Gen. Washington arrived at N. York Ap. 14
The tea belonging to the E. India company thrown overboard at Boston Dec. 16	The British fleet and army arrived at Sandy Hook in June, landed on Staten Island July 2
An act to shut the port of Boston, March	DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE July 4
First congress convened at Phil. Sept. 4	Battle on Long-Island, Americans defeated, July 27
Battle at Lexington began the war April 19 1775	The troops withdrawn from Long-Island July 28
Ticonderoga seized by Col. Allen, May	N. York evacuated by the American army Sept. 14
George Washington appointed commander in chief of the army, June 15; took command of the troops investing Boston July 2	Gen. Arnold defeated at Lake Champlain, Oct. 12
Battle on Breed's hill—Gen. Warren killed, June 17	Battle at the White Plains, Oct. 28
Gen. Montgomery penetrated into Canada took fort Chamblée, St. John's and Montreal, Nov.	Fort Washington taken, with 2000 prisoners, Nov. 16
Col. Arnold, with 3000 infantry, entered Canada by the Kenébec	American army retreated thro' N. Jersey and cross the Delaware, Nov. and Dec.
Assault upon Quebec, Gen. Montgomery killed; Americans defeated, Dec. 31	Gen. Lee made prisoner Dec. 13
Quebec blockaded by Gen. Thomas 1776	A body of Hessians attacked and made prisoners at Trenton, Dec. 26
A body of Americans at the Cedars, surrendered in May	Battle at Princeton, Gen. Mercer killed, Jan. 3 1777
The Americans expelled from Canada	A convention declared Vermont to be an independent state, Jan. 16
Norfolk in Vir. burnt by the British, Jan. 8 1776	Danbury destroyed, Gen. Wooster killed, April 27 and 28
A party of Royalists in N.	Burgoyne surrendered to Gen. Gates Oct. 17
	Battle of Germantown Gen. Nash killed, October 5
	Battle of Monmouth, June 28
	Gen. Lee arrested June 30

- tried and suspended for one year
- Savannah taken by the British under Col. Campbell, Dec.
- Gen. Tryon invaded New-Haven, destroyed the stores, July 5, then burnt Fairfield July 9, and Norwalk July 12
- Stony Point taken by assault by General Wayne, July 15
- Assault upon Savannah unsuccessful, Pulaski killed, Oct. 9
- The winter the most rigorous ever known in America, Long-Island found was covered with ice, and the Chesapeake was passed with loaded carriages at Annapolis 1779-80
- Gen. Lincoln capitulated and Charleston surrendered May 12
- Americans defeated at Camden, Aug. 16
- A French fleet and army under Rochambeau arrived at Newport July 10
- Gen. Arnold's treason discovered, he escaped Sept. 25
- Major Andre taken, executed Oct. 2
- Great hurricanes in the W. Indies Oct. 2 and 11, in Barbadoes alone perished 5 or 6000 persons
- Battle of the Cowpens, British defeated, Jan. 17 1781
- Confederation completed by the ratification of Maryland, Feb.
- Battle of Guilford, Am. repulsed, March 15
- The combined armies under Gen. Washington decamp from the Hudson and march for Virginia, August 19
- N. London burnt, Fort Griswold stormed and the garrison put to the sword by Arnold, Sept. 6
- Battle at Eutaw Springs; victory of Gen. Green, Sept. 8
- Lord Cornwallis and the army besieged in Yorktown, Sept. 25
- The British army surrendered to Gen. Washington, which decided the Revolutionary contest, Oct. 19 1781
- The Bible first printed in America by Robert Aiken, Philadelphia 17
- The army disbanded Oct. 18, farewell address of Gen. Washington to the army, November 2
- N. York evacuated by the British army, November 25
- Gen. Washington resigned his commission Dec. 23
- Severe winter 1783-4, great floods in the rivers in March
- Hurricane at Jamaica destroyed all the shipping, &c. July 30
- A most destructive hurricane in the Windward islands Aug. 25, in the Leeward islands Aug. 27
- Mr. J. Madison first moved the house of delegates in Virginia to appoint commissioners to meet commissioners of the other states to form commercial regulations, which gave rise to the convention which formed the present constitution, Dec.

Insurrection in Massachusetts began Aug.	1786	France null and void, July 7	
Commissioners met at Annap. Sept. 14, 1786 but adjourned to May 25 1787, when delegates, with more ample powers, assembled and agreed upon the present constitution, September 17	1787	Capt Truxton in the Constellation took the French frigate Insurgent Feb. 10	1799
First meeting of congress under the present constitution at New-York, Gen. Washington inaugurated first President, April 30	1789	Great snow in Carolina and Georgia Jan. 7	1800
Tennessee ceded to the U. S. by N. Carolina		Remarkable flood in the Connecticut, Mar. 20-25	
Dr. Franklin died in his 85th year, April 17	1790	Gen. Washington died Dec. 14 aged 68	
Kentucky erected into an Independent state, December 6		The college at Princeton burnt Mar. 7	
Vermont admitted into the union Feb. 18	1791	The state of Ohio admitted into the union	
Resolve of congress estab. a mint Mar. 3	1791	Unexampled tempest, began in W. Indies Sept. 1 and raged three days, on the 7, 8 and 9, it inundated Carolina and Georgia, with immense destruction	1804
Kentucky admitted into the union June 1	1792	Severest winter since 1780 from Dec. 20 to the last week in Feb. 1804-5	
Proclamation of neutrality by the President of the United States, April 22	1793	<i>Treaties of the United States,</i>	
Cape Francois burnt, and the white inhabitants massacred by the blacks, June 20		With France Feb. 6, 1778;	
A remarkable frost May 17	1794	Holland Oct. 8, 1782;	
Tennessee admitted into the union, June 1	1796	Sweden April 3, 1783;	
Gen. Washington's address to the people of the United States on his retiring from the Presidency Sept. 17	1796	of peace with Great Britain, prelim. Nov. 30, 1782; Definitive Sept. 3, 1783; Prussia Sept. 10, 1785; of amity and commerce with Great Britain Nov. 19, 1794; with France for Louisiana April 30, 1803	
A great earthquake at Quito, S. America, destroyed towns and 40,000 inhabitants, February	1797	<i>Colleges and Universities founded.</i>	
Congress passed an act declaring the treaty with		Harvard, Mass. 1638; William and Mary, Vir. 1693;	
		Yale College, Con. 1701;	
		College in Phil. 1753;	
		Univer. of Penn. 1791;	
		Nassau Hall, N. Jersey, 1746; N. York, 1754;	
		Dartmouth, N. Hampshire, 1769; Brown College, Providence 1764;	
		Hampden Sidney, Vir.	

1774; Washington, Ma. 1782; Dickinson College, Carlisle, Penn 1783; St John's at Annapolis, Ma. 1784; Cokesbury, in Abingdon, Ma. 1785; University in Georgia, 1785; Franklin, at Lancaster Penn. 1787; University in N. Carolina, 1789; Georgetown, Ma. 1789; Williams College, Mass. 1790; Univer. of Burlington, Ver. 1791; Greenville, Ten. 1794; Union at Schenectady, 1794; Bowdoin, in Maine, 1794; at Winesbury and Beaufort, S. Carolina, 1795; Transylvania, at Lex. Ken. 1798; at Middlebury Ver. 1800

Literary Societies instituted.

American Philosophical, Phil. 1769; American Academy, Mass. 1780; New-York Agricultural incorp. 1793; Con. Academy, 1801; Mass. Historical, 1791, incorp. 1794.

Influenza in North America.

1647, 1655, 1697-8, 1732, 1737, 1747, 1756-7, 1761, 1772; 1781, 1789 and 90, 1802,

Unusual darkness, which rendered candles necessary

in the day time, Oct. 21; 1716; Aug. 9, 1732; Oct. 19, 1762 at Detroit; May 19, 1780; Oct. 9th, 15th and 16th, 1785 in Canada; Oct. 29th, 1789 in Kentucky

Great Fires, burnt, in Boston 45 houses, Nov. 27, 1676; 80 houses, 70 stores, &c. Aug. 8, 1679; Oct. 23, 1683; best part of the town; 1711, 174 houses, 175 stores, March 20, 1760 one part of Charleston 1740. In New-York 1776. In Boston, 100 buildings Ap. 24, 1787, and 96 buildings July 30, 1794. Great in Charleston, June 20, 1796—most of Savannah Dec. 26, 1796. A square in New-York Dec. 9, 1796—in Richmond Nov. 22, 1798—most of Wilmington, N. C. Oct. 31, 1798—most of Norfolk Virg. Feb. 22, 1804.

First News paper printed, in Boston, the news letter Ap. 24, 1704—in Philadelphia, the American Weekly Mercury, Dec. 22, 1719—in New-York, the New-York Gazette, Oct. 16, 1725—in R. Island, the Rhode Island Gazette, Oct. 1732. In Con. New-Haven, the Connecticut Gazette, 1755—in New Hampshire, 1756—in Providence, 1762—in Kentucky, 1787—in Tennessee, 1790.





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